The Literary Digest

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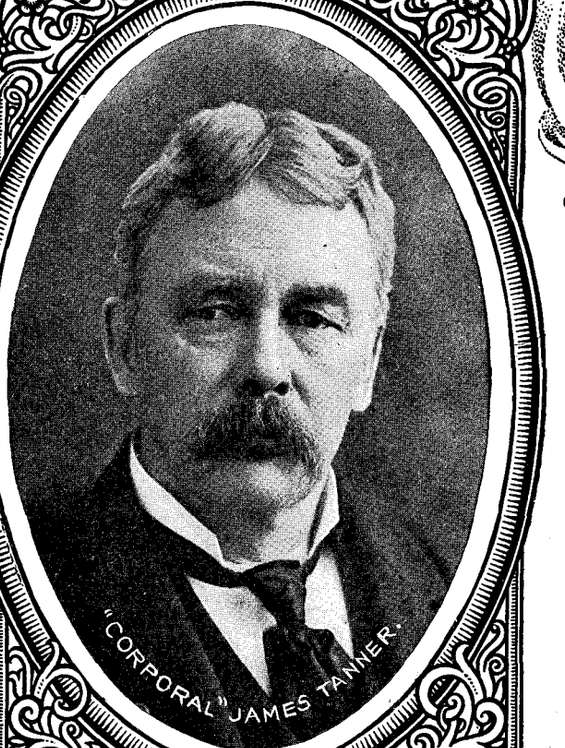

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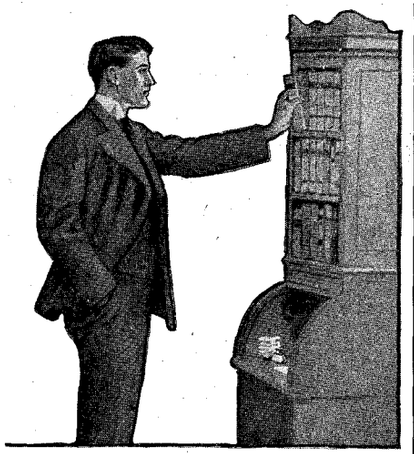

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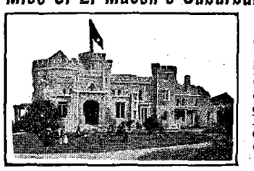

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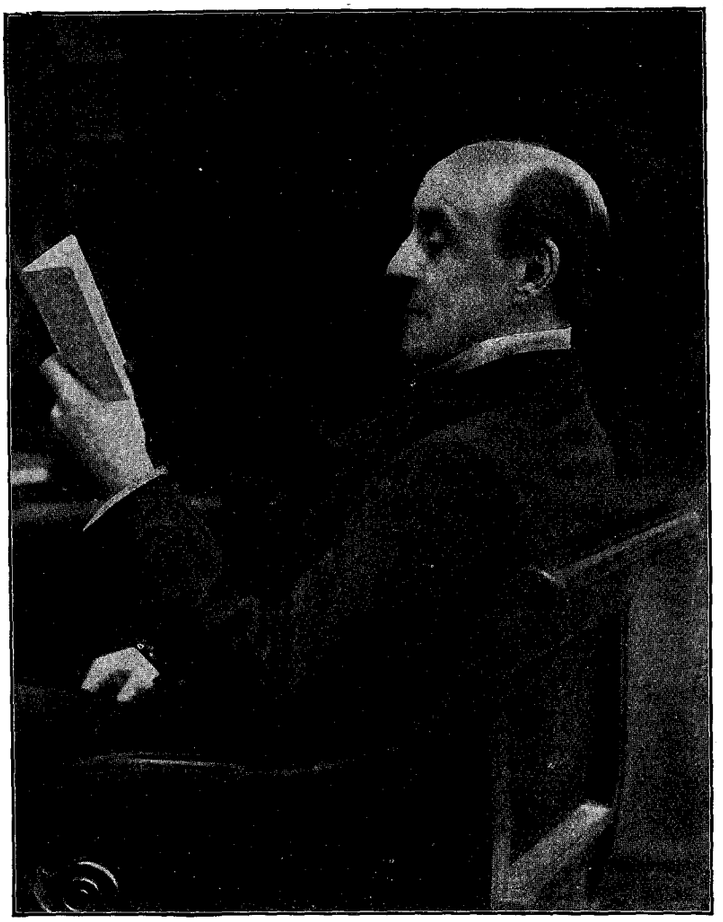

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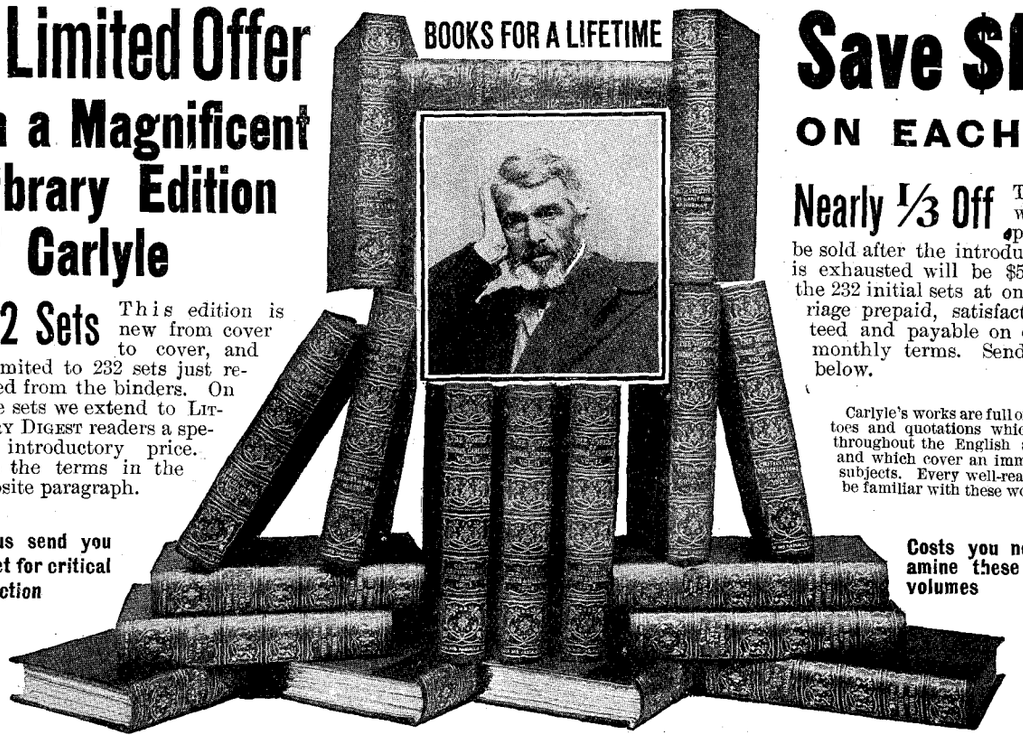

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

MORE INSURANCE COMPANIES UNDER THE SEARCHLIGHT.

THE legislative committee which is now investigating the methods of life-insurance companies in New York was not appointed, as *The Outlook* explains, "to discover and punish wrong-doers." This is the work of the District Attorney and the State Superintendent of Insurance, who are conducting independent investigations. The object of the committee, as its chairman, Senator Armstrong, declares, is "to get at all the salient features of modern insurance business so as to suggest . . . an adequate law that will not only protect the policy-holders in all life-insurance companies, but will likewise protect the insurance companies' management from abuses at the hands of designing persons." Nevertheless the interesting developments already brought out by its inquiries, prove, says the New York *Press*, that "all the big life-insurance companies, proprietary and 'mutual,' so called, are as deep in the mud as the Equitable is in the mire."

The companies first to be "raked over the coals" were the Equitable Life, the New York Life, the Mutual Life, the Mutual Reserve Life, the Mutual Benefit Life of New Jersey, the Metropolitan Life of New York, and several smaller concerns. The admissions of the officials of most of the companies who were called as witnesses revealed instances of that same waste of assets, unwarranted advances to agents, expense accounts unverified and not audited, excessive salaries, improper loans and deposits, and obscure and unintelligible entries which created such a scandal against the Equitable. Says the New York *World:*

"For years these insurance companies have been giving to the public what are now admitted to be false statements. The New York Life has been proclaiming that it owns no stocks of any kind. Its treasurer yesterday admitted that it had thousands of shares of speculative stocks, but it omitted them from its annual statements. It was also admitted that the company made fictitious loans to clerks to conceal stocks which it pretended to have disposed of in order to meet the requirements of the Prussian insurance regulations. The Equitable is apparently no worse than its associates in the system. It almost shines by contrast. Its expenses of management are less and its dividends greater than either the Mutual or the New York."

The first point made clear by the investigations of the committee, as the Milwaukee *Sentinel* relates, "is that mutual companies are not managed by the policy-holders." The Boston *Herald* remarks:

"It is shown by the statements of the corporation officers that the policy-holders rarely exercise their power of voting, and that the leading officials hold in proxies that they have obtained a voting power sufficient to set at naught any probable effort on the part of the policy-holders to reorganize the elected board of directors."

The real managers of mutual as well as all other kinds of big insurance companies are, as the Cleveland *Leader* points out, "select groups of magnates": and if the evidence adduced be true, they use the moneys in their care to influence State and national elections, as Judge Alton B. Parker charged during the last presidential campaign. Says he, in commenting upon the contribution of $50,000 which the New York Life made to the Republican campaign fund:

"What has been proved in the case of the New York Life will undoubtedly be proved in the other cases. The facts exist, and honest and able counsel, backed by an honest committee, will undoubtedly bring them out for the public good."

It should be noted that no evidence has so far been brought to light which shows that the management of any company, no matter how irregular, has reduced its assets to such an extent as to impair the value of its policies. Even where directors and other officials have made profit out of the transactions of the company, it does not appear that the policy-holders have materially suffered. But as the New York *Globe* remarks:

"The fact that there has been no loss does not meet the criticism which has been made—that there is danger in a system under which an officer's fiduciary duties may collide with his interests as an individual. Selfishness being a fixed part of human nature, there is reason in the rule of the law that the rôles of buyer for others and possible seller for yourself can not be united."

The men, however, who indulge in this practise all seem to think that it is entirely unobjectionable. Mr. Frederick Cromwell, treasurer of the Mutual Life, frankly admitted his personal interest in a syndicate which was largely financed by the funds of his company. When called as a witness by the committee, he gave testimony which is summarized by the New York *Times* as follows:

"[He] showed that the members of the subfinance committee, the inner circle of the finance committee, which controls all of the investments of the Mutual, had mixed up their responsibility as officers of the Mutual with their private interests as members of the syndicates with which the Mutual had dealings. His evidence demonstrated that the James H. Hyde and associates' transactions with the Equitable had been duplicated by the members of the finance committee of the Mutual. Mr. Cromwell and his fellow-members of the subfinance committee frequently acted as middlemen between the Mutual and such interests as wanted to borrow of the Mutual, and when they had placed the loan they got their 'rake-off.' Questioned as to the propriety of his conduct in acting both for the Mutual and for those who wished to use its funds, Mr. Cromwell said that for a considerable time he had refrained from becoming a member of any syndicates which had

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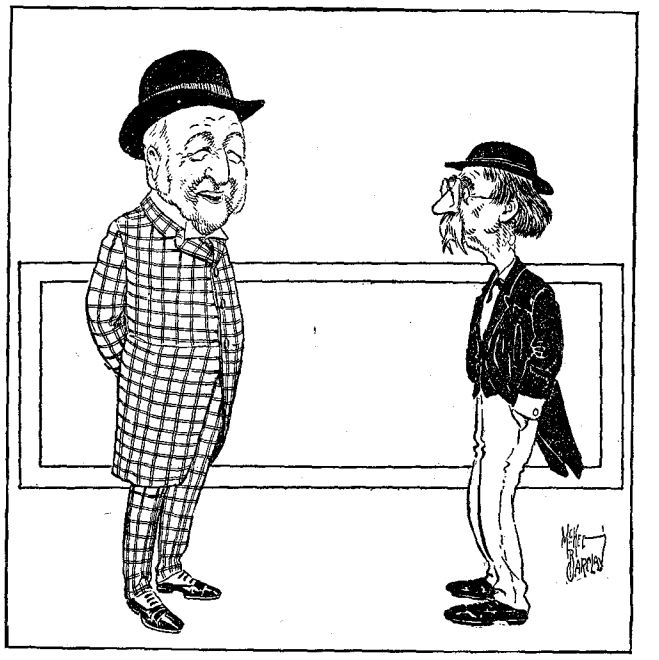
dealings with the Mutual because he was dubious about the propriety of his acting in a double capacity. After giving much thought to the matter, however, he had reached the conclusion that his scruples were foolish.

"He declared that as he now regarded the matter, as long as his judgment as an official of the Mutual was not warped by his interest in a syndicate seeking to do business with the Mutual, he felt that he was fully justified in participating in the profits of such syndicates. He declared that his judgment never had been so warped, and that he therefore felt justified in all that he had done as a middleman between the Mutual and concerns which borrowed of it."

AMERICA'S DANGER FROM CHOLERA.

THE sudden appearance of cholera in Eastern Prussia, and the presence of a number of cases of the plague among Russian emigrants in Hamburg awaiting transportation to the United States "give cause," remarks *The Medical Record*, "not for popular alarm, but for increased watchfulness on the part of our sanitary guardians." *The Record* continues:

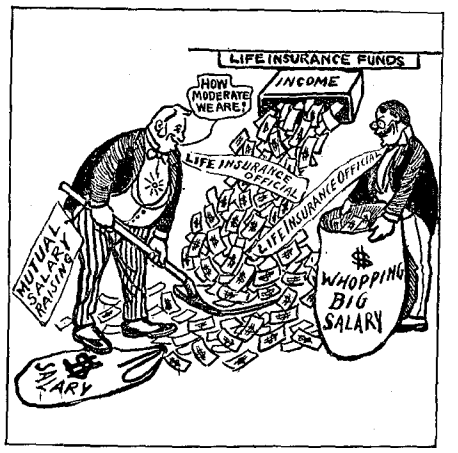
"Epidemiologists have for some time been watching this gradual advance of cholera from the East on one of its periodical incursions into Western Europe. The movement began in the latter part of 1899. Eastward the disease advanced from India rapidly, invading China and Japan. From Hongkong it passed to the Philippines, working havoc in Manila and the Provinces despite the best efforts of the medical officers of the army and marine hospital service. Its progress westward through Arabia and Persia into Russia has been more gradual. Cholera appeared in Mecca in 1902, and thence spread throughout the Mussulman world, being heard of in Egypt, Asia Minor, and Persia, finally establishing itself firmly in Teheran. From this point it followed the caravan routes into Anatolia, Transcaucasia, and Transcaspia, thence reaching the banks of the Volga. Here it rested for nearly eighteen months, being restrained by some mysterious influence, the nature of which students of epidemics have never yet discovered, and only now has it resumed its march westward. Why should it have remained so long in Russia and then suddenly crossed the frontier? Raftsmen were coming down the Vistula past Thorn and Kulm, and emigrants were leaving Poland and Western Russia for Hamburg and Bremen, sailing thence for New York, but the disease remained behind. The Russian health officials did as little to throttle the epidemic then as they are doing now, and the communication between the Volga, where the cholera hibernated, and the Vistula down which it is now journeying into Prussia, was just as free in the summer of 1904 as in that of 1905, but the infection refused to spread. Suddenly it takes a start and Europe awakes to the peril of a cholera invasion."



THE WESTERNER—"I have succeeded, by grafting, in producing a seedless apple!"

THE EASTERNER—"Well, we have almost succeeded in producing, by grafting, a cashless insurance company!"

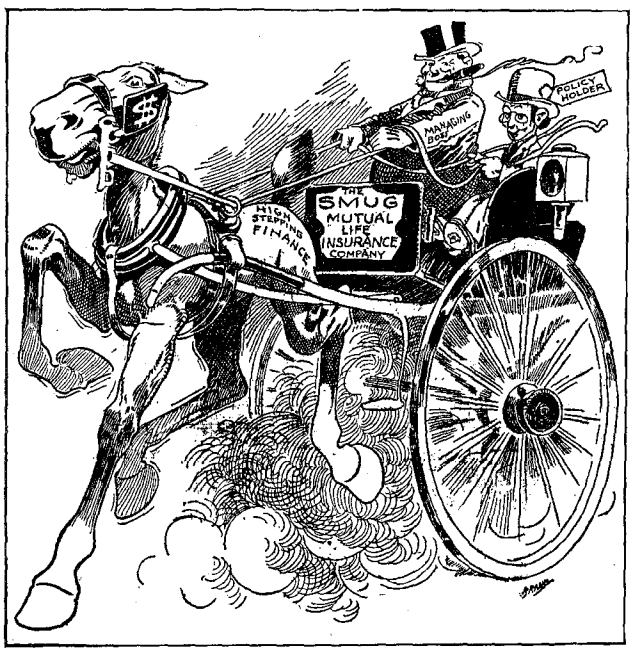
—Barclay in the Baltimore *News*.



THE MUTUAL PLAN.

"You fill my sack and I'll fill yours."

—Maybell in the Brooklyn *Eagle*.



AND THE LITTLE FELLOW THINKS HE'S DRIVING.

—Bradley in the Chicago *News*.

"DEFERRED" DIVIDENDS.

The kingdom of Prussia, where cholera has made its new appearance, is more than three times the size of Tennessee and is inhabited by nearly 35,000,000 people. But in spite of this dense population, if the disease existed nowhere except within the limits of the German Empire, "there would," says the Nashville *Banner*, "be assurance of the most vigorous and enlightened methods for checking its spread." But the danger lies in the fact that it has already, as is generally believed, made considerable headway along the western frontier of European Russia. Every precaution is being taken to prevent emigrants from the infected countries from carrying the plague into America. Dr. Allan McLaughlin, of the United States Health and Marine Hospital Service, who was sent from Naples to Hamburg by the authorities at Washington to see that the United States quarantine regulations were enforced in regard to ships leaving that port for this country, is reported as saying:

"I visited the emigrant barracks of the Hamburg-American line and the hospitals and found everything complying with the quarantine regulations of the United States. I think the Hamburg medical police regulations the best in the world, and all precautions are being taken. At present there are only three cases of cholera; there may be more in future, but there is no fear of the disease spreading as it did in 1902, the frontiers being closed to Russian emigrants, the water-supply of Hamburg being well filtered and free from germs. Each steamer leaving for the United States is visited by me, and a health certificate is signed if the vessel has complied with the United States regulations."

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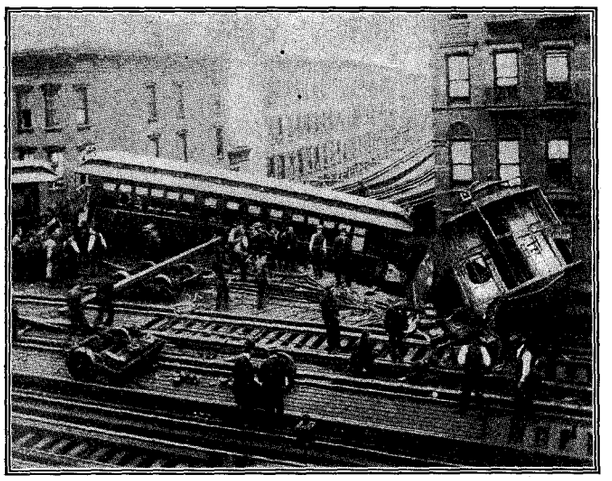
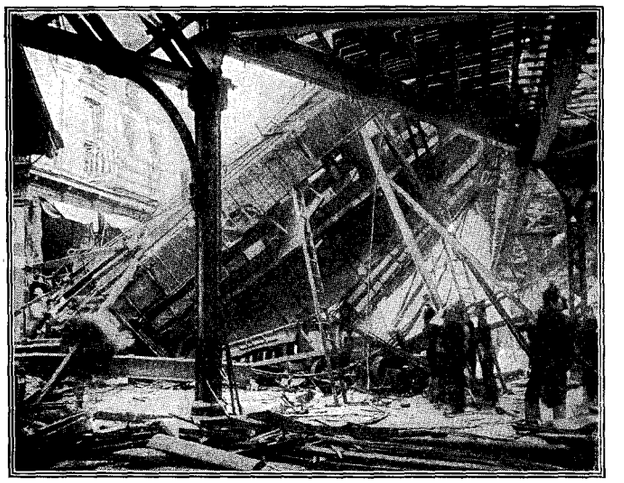


Courtesy of The New York "American."

VIEW FROM THE ELEVATED STRUCTURE.



VIEW FROM THE STREET.

THE NEW YORK "ELEVATED" WRECK.

END OF OUR TARIFF WAR WITH RUSSIA.

THAT the Czar should end his tariff war with us, in recognition of President Roosevelt's services in ending his war with Japan, is considered a most fitting and graceful act by most of our press. Some, however, remark that, as in his other war, the Czar makes more by ending it than he would by keeping on. In 1901, it will be remembered, Russia imposed a "penal" duty on our machinery and other iron and steel products, by which our manufacturers had to pay tariff rates 30 to 50 per cent. higher than European manufacturers, because we interpreted certain governmental aid to the Russian sugar industry as a bounty and, as provided by the Dingley law, raised our tariff on Russian sugar. Our tariff remains, but the Russian penal tariff on our machinery is now lifted.

"Russia needs the American machinery," says the Chicago *News* (Ind.), in explanation of the Czar's act, and the Philadelphia *Record* (Dem.) takes the same view. The New York *Press* (Rep.) observes similarly:

"We hate to look a gift horse in the mouth, but this animal is fit for the boneyard. The retaliatory tariff just removed by the Czar was doing the Russian people more harm than good, and they are glad to get rid of it. It was imposed because of a differential duty on Russian sugar imported to this country, to countervail an imperial bounty paid the Russian sugar-makers. To maintain the duty that shut out of the Russian market all kinds of iron and steel manufactures, or at least limited American exportation of such wares to Russia, was cutting off the Muscovite nose to spite the Muscovite face. Russia will be better off with American goods of this class, which are the best in the world."

The Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington reports that our sales to Russia have gone right on increasing under the "penal" tariff. It says:

"An analysis of the figures showing the imports from the United States of the various articles affected by the discriminating tariff legislation shows that these imports have, on the whole, increased during the period in question. Thus, the imports of manufactures of cast iron increased from $19,955 in value during the year 1900 (which, for purposes of this comparison, may be taken as a normal year) to $45,722 in 1903. The imports of hand tools, which were $15,315 in value in 1900, increased to $64,532 in 1903. Those of machinery increased from $223,529 in 1900 to $338,694 in 1903, while the imports of the various articles under the general head of manufactures of iron and steel increased from $45,373 in 1900 to $363,555 in 1902, and fell off to $67,555 during the following year. The same is true of bicycles, the imports of which, from $10,836 in 1900, increased to $43,087 in 1902, but fell to $30,377 during the following year. The imports of the articles under the general head of naval stores more than doubled—from $186,552 in 1900 to $404,226 in 1903. The combined figures of imports from the United States of the articles subject to discriminating duties show an increase from $501,558 in 1900 to $951,106 in 1903."

FIRST BIG WRECK ON THE NEW YORK "ELEVATED."

SELDOM has there been a railroad wreck in this country so notable for the after-suggestions of simple precautions that might have prevented it as the disaster of last week, when a car plunged from the New York elevated road to the street below, killing twelve passengers and injuring forty more. The newspapers are full of such reflections. If the fatal curve which the Ninth-avenue train took at full speed, by mistake, had been "banked," instead of flat, the train might have rounded it safely; if the Ninth-avenue trains had been ordered to approach the dangerous switch slowly, instead of at full tilt, this one would have gone round all right; if there had been an automatic stop-device, the train could not have taken the wrong track; if two men had been at the controller, instead of one, the other might have seen the switch signal and applied the brakes; if the ill-starred car had been of steel, like many of the subway cars, it would not have crumpled up; and lastly, if the Sixth-avenue branch track had been elevated still farther, and carried across the Ninth-avenue line on a "crossover," the displacement of the switch would have been apparent, and the train stopped before it went into the street. All this, of course, is aside from the apparent suggestion that if the switchman and motorman had done their duty, the train would never have taken the wrong track. Altho the elevated road carries some 500,000 passengers a day and has been in operation, with heavy traffic, for thirty-four years, it had been the proud boast of the management that it had never caused the death of a passenger by collision or derailment, and the New York *Herald* remarks that this was in reality a dangerous fact, for it was "calculated to lull the managers into a feeling of fancied security in the existing methods."

The Washington *Star* says of the human element in the disaster:

"There is some doubt as to which of the two human causes is most to blame. One theory of the disaster is that the towerman, whose duty it is to switch trains alternately to one and the other branches of the line, mistook the destination signals on the approaching train and sent it around the curve instead of straight ahead. The high speed of the train made it impossible for it to negotiate the curve safely and it buckled and one of the cars was

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thrust over the edge of the structure. The other theory is that the train bore the wrong signals, thus warranting the towerman in turning the switch for the curve. In either case it is plain that the motorman, who disappeared immediately after the accident and has not yet been found, ran his train at a dangerous rate of speed when he saw, or should have seen, the signals set for the curve instead of the straight track. Whether the towerman was responsible or not, the motorman is blamable for his reckless running regardless of signals. Had he slowed down on seeing the curve signals he would merely have run around on the wrong track, being later forced to back up to obtain his proper line.

"Thus in any case the combination of a deficient human agent and a deficient construction is presented, for if the curve had been properly built no mistake of either motorman or towerman, or both, would have resulted in disaster. And in the adjustment of the case it is to be hoped that the courts of New York will find a way to hold to a full degree of responsibility those higher officials of the line whose duty to the public requires them to adopt every device known to engineering science which will safeguard human life."

As regards punishment, the opinion is freely expressed that claims for damages to the amount of $500,000 or more will probably be filed against the company. Several papers, however, think that somebody should wear stripes for this affair. So thinks the Providence *Journal;* and the Boston *Transcript* says:

"*The Railway Gazette* recently tabulated twenty-five derailments and twenty-three collisions on railroads in this country in the month of July last. There was an average of one death a day, which was considered 'a good showing' in comparison with reports of other months. Yet it does not appear that our courts have been overworked with the trial of cases to determine who was responsible for these accidents, or for the punishment of those so responsible. In England, when anybody is killed in a railroad accident, somebody is very likely to go to jail. In this country such a result is the exception. We find too many excuses for the human carelessness which is the prime cause of our railway accidents.

"The New York case affords an opportunity to test the sufficiency of our laws relating to accidents; if the laws are not tested, it will be the fault of the authorities of that city, and to let a person responsible for such a disaster as that of this morning go unpunished is merely to put a premium on carelessness in railroad management."

SOUTH CAROLINA'S DISPENSARY SCANDAL.

AN investigation of the workings of the State Dispensary in South Carolina has uncovered a system of graft, corruption, and bribery at which the local papers stand appalled. "The dispensary," declares the Columbia *State*, "stands alone, unrivaled; the world's matchless grafting-machine"; and the Charlotte *Observer* remarks that it is "one of the most elaborate systems of grafting in modern times." South Carolina for over twelve years has been trying the dispensary method of dealing with the liquor traffic, in which the State controls and conducts liquor-selling, the profits going to the public treasury. Senator Benjamin R. Tillman, the father and chief defender of the system, and other promoters held that this scheme would drive liquor-selling out of politics, reduce drunkenness, and free the traffic generally of political scandal and social demoralization. Nevertheless, almost from the day that the system went into operation, we are told by the Charleston *News and Courier*, "charges of corruption have been laid against it," but the people were "not allowed to suspect that dishonesty could enter the dispensary."

For nearly a month a committee has been investigating the workings of the dispensary. It is shown that positions with the dispensary were bartered and sold for money. Mr. Toland, a former dispenser at Spartanburg, told of his actual payment of $275 and a gold watch to secure a dispensary job. Even the $50 clerkships were bought or sold. At Spartanburg the committee uncovered a scheme to buy the support of the Spartanburg *Journal* in the fight against prohibition. A fund of $400 was to be raised for the purpose. The testimony shows also how the liquor concern boomed their own candidates for dispensary positions, and in many cases furnished the campaign funds. There was sharp competition to gain the patronage of the State Dispensary Board, whose duty it was to distribute the stock to the dispensaries. In brief, dispensers accepted presents from whisky-dealers as pay for favoritism; received bonuses and bribes for pushing certain brands of whisky, by selling to the agents of such whisky the empty cases for three or four times their value. Sometimes the empty bottles were sold to the agents for from 20 to 35 cents a dozen.

In South Carolina there is now a strong movement to close up the dispensaries, and Senator Tillman proposes to leave the question to the Democratic primary. The prohibitionists are confident that their cause will win if presented to the people. Probably the best that South Carolina has to say on the subject is found in the debate that has been going on between George B. Cromer, a prominent prohibitionist of that State, and Senator Tillman, both men using the Charleston *News and Courier* as their mouthpiece. Mr. Cromer writes, in part, to Senator Tillman:

"Our Supreme Court, in its famous decision upholding the constitutionality of the dispensary law, laid down the following as a fundamental proposition, and said that if this proposition is not true the law is unconstitutional: 'That liquor, in its nature, is dangerous to the morals, good order, health, and safety of the people, and is not to be placed on the same footing with the ordinary commodities of life, such as corn, wheat, cotton, tobacco, potatoes, etc.' Kansas says to her children, 'The liquor traffic is dangerous and ought to be prohibited.' South Carolina says to her thousands of school-children: 'The liquor traffic is dangerous to the morals, good order, health, and safety of the people, and therefore we will sell liquor and get all the money we can for the schools.' . . . . .

"The business of the saloon-keeper was becoming disreputable in this State, and saloon-keepers were beginning to find it difficult to justify the business in the eyes of their children. The dispensary system attempts to make the traffic respectable and reputable. How can the children in our schools answer the sophistry of the argument that whatever contributes to the support of the school is good and wise? I lay it down as little short of an axiom that any restrictive scheme that takes control of a traffic that is dangerous to the morals of the people, and controls it in such a way as to make it reputable, is a vicious and dangerous scheme."

A portion of Senator Tillman's reply follows:

"The dispensary law properly administered does reduce drunkenness. It does conduce to temperance and good morals, and teaches men the uses of liquor rather than the abuses of it. That the State board of control is now under suspicion of corruption, with many things pointing to the belief that the suspicion is well grounded, and that the local dispensers have been debauched because of the lax administration or maladministration of the law, proves nothing. . . . . .

"Everybody recognizes the evil of drunkenness, and how to minimize or to prevent it is the whole question. You say prohibit the sale. I say sell by bonded officers, under stringent regulations, in the daytime only, and have the law enforced; the profit, which is an incident and not a purpose in this sale, to go where it is most needed; that is, into the school fund of the State. It would make no difference if it went into the fund of the general treasury, and the school fund increased from other sources. But that is a subterfuge. No one drinks any more or patronizes the dispensary because the profits go to the school fund. I can not see any harm or sin in obtaining revenue from a traffic that is irrepressible. The United States Supreme Court protects each citizen in the right to import for his own use, and no law of the State can prevent it. The poorer and more ignorant classes, who can not thus obtain liquor, have been, and always will be, supplied through some local agency, no matter what the law against selling liquor may be. . . . The dispensary system does not rest for its support upon the money that it brings in. It rests on the claim of its defenders backed by experience of our people and statistics, as affording more protection against the vice of drunkenness than any other system, prohibition or license either.

"If it has done this in spite of maladministration and mismanagement, what would it not do if such men as Dr. Cromer and his friends would give to the enforcement of the law their great moral support?"

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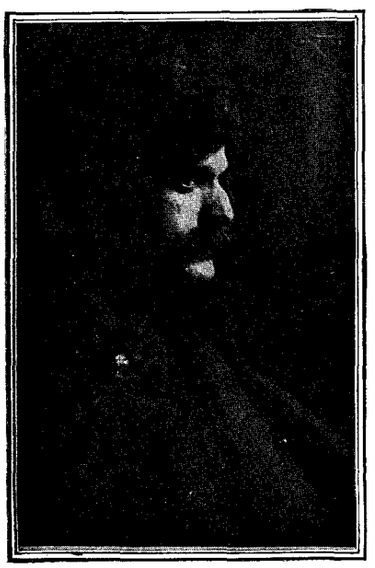
LETTERS AND ART.

ARTISTIC PHOTOGRAPHY IN AMERICA.

NOT a few will read with surprise the suggestion of Mr. Charles H. Caffin, one of our best known art critics, that as a medium for rendering the subtleties of light the camera may yet prove its superiority over the brush. It is from Rembrandt and Velasquez and from Whistler, in their interpretation of light, writes Mr. Caffin, that those American photographers who approach photography as an art "are seeking and will discover their best inspiration." While foreign photographers, as a rule, continues the writer, show more regard for "composition" and more taste in choice of subject, "the American photographer, like the American painter, is apt to show preference for technical problems." And the technical problem which chiefly occupies the American picture-maker, the problem of light, is, according to Mr. Caffin, "the one in which photography will ultimately manifest its most individual and characteristic possibilities."

These statements are found in a special number of *The Studio* devoted to a discussion of "Art in Photography," to which Mr. Caffin contributes a sketch of the development of this new art in the United States. Side by side with the advance of painting in America since the Centennial Exhibition of 1876, he tells us, has gone a development of the artistic side of photography. From a tendency at first to imitate the effects of other mediums, such as water-colors or crayons, artistic photography has now turned its attention toward the discovery of its own distinctive possibilities. To-day the serious student of photography, writes Mr. Caffin, "when he has turned to painting for instruction in artistic matters, has sought to emulate neither the technique of painting nor the manner of various painters, but has borrowed and adapted to his own medium the general principles applicable to all forms of pictorial representation"—those of composition, chiaroscuro, atmospheric and textural illusion, color, tone, and values. He says:



MR. ALFRED STIEGLITZ,

Editor of *Camera Work*, who has played a leading part in the development of artist photography in America. He stands for "the integrity and independence of the photographic medium."

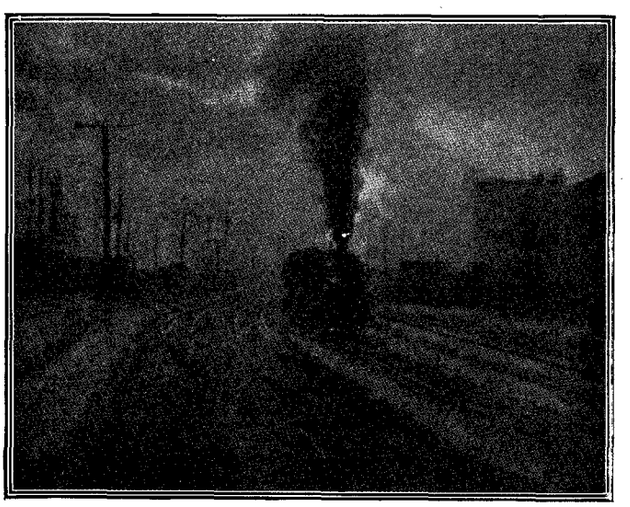
"In adjusting their pursuit of these qualities to the characteristic possibilities of the camera, the best American photographers have put themselves in line with the most modern workers in painting. For the latest phase of the latter, the most important contribution of the nineteenth century, is the closer analysis of the action of light, especially in relation to the rendering of atmosphere and values; and the best American photographers, recognizing that light is their palette, have, as a body, ventured further in the direction of these qualities and achieved more success, I am inclined to think, than those of Europe. At any rate, to appraise their work justly one must realize that the attainment of these qualities has been their first pursuit, and that by means of them they have sought particularly to make their prints embody personal expression. In many cases, no doubt, this motive of the subtle rendering of the 'values'—a term, by the way, which has a different meaning here from what it has in England, being used to discriminate between the various modifications in the quantity of light reflected from every object and the variations of local color effected by the intervening planes of the atmosphere—has led to certain deficiencies in American prints.

"They are apt to exhibit a lack of regard for form; to be deficient in 'tactile' qualities and in structural force; in fact, to slur

THE PORTFOLIO.
By Clarence H. White.

over the architectonics of actual building up of the composition, and to be satisfied with the surface appearances; perhaps, in consequence, a little overburdened with emotionalism—in a general way, too feminine in character. Indeed, I believe it would be just to state the matter more strongly and admit that in a greater or less degree, these deficiencies characterize a large proportion of the best prints which have been produced in the United States. The result is that a number of them together may produce an impression of tentative effort and experimenting, rather than of solidly achieved results."

These shortcomings, Mr. Caffin asserts by way of abatement, are the very result of tireless experimentation, inducing in its turn



THE HAND OF MAN
By Alfred Stieglitz.

"an alertness to impressions, a spirit of investigation, . . . that represent a very appropriate attitude toward an art still so young as photography." The consequence is that "you are likely to find more evidences of originality, and more food for conjecture as to whither the art may ultimately tend, in a collection of the best American prints than in a corresponding number of foreign ones." As to the methods by which the more advanced photographers achieve their results, Mr. Caffin writes:

"These are for the most part based upon the recognition of the

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virtue of the 'straight' negative; one, that is to say, which has been subject to no subsequent alterations, unless it be the local reducing or strengthening of certain parts by chemical applications. It remains, as it was at first, a direct result of the logic of chemical cause and effect, obtained by regulating the degree of intensity to which it is developed. This is not generally believed; yet it is a fact, so far as concerns the present work of all the leading photographers. And it is a very important fact, since it shows a reliance primarily upon the scientific qualities of the medium. To play all kinds of tricks with the plate, as used to be a not unusual habit over here, proved nothing but the ingenuity, oftentimes perverse, of the craftsman. It was at best an extraneous ingenuity, not based upon the chemical conditions or tending intrinsically to advance a knowledge and control of them. The need for it was frequently the result of the operator's lack of scientific knowledge in the handling of an instrument founded upon scientific principles."

The lead in the advocacy of the "straight" negative has been taken by Alfred Stieglitz, who is characterized by Mr. Caffin as "a thorough scientist and at the same time thoroughly artistic"; and it is very largely through his influence "that the development of pictorial photography in the United States has proceeded at every stage upon the firm basis of the actual chemical and mechanical possibilities of the camera process." "What charm of delicacy or richness, as the case may be, and of subtle effects of light and atmosphere, the beautiful medium of platinotype may be made to yield without other manipulation than that of skilful printing, aided by taste and feeling, has been demonstrated especially by Alfred Stieglitz, Holland F. Day, Clarence H. White, and Mrs. Gertrude Kasebier." The most successful manipulators of the gum-bichromate process are named as Alvin L. Coburn and Edward Steichen—the latter's prints representing "pretty nearly, if not quite, the best that photography has yet accomplished," tho their defect is that "their character is too conspicuously a painter's." They may be regarded, adds Mr. Caffin, as brilliant aberrations from the path which American photographers, whose ideal is to stand for the independence and integrity of photography, are treading.

THE FIRST CONGRESS OF ESPERANTISTS.

THE recent international Congress of Esperantists at Boulogne has called attention to the remarkable spread of Esperanto, an artificial language invented to supply a universal medium of international communication. Dr. Ludwig Zamenhof, a Russian Jewish physician in Warsaw, and inventor of the new language, published his manual of Esperanto in 1887. Now it is said that two hundred and fifty thousand persons speak the new tongue, and that the number is rapidly increasing. At the first Esperantist congress toasts were responded to in Esperanto by representatives of eighteen different nations. Already, we are told, there is the nucleus of an Esperantist literature, comprising translations of "Hamlet," La Fontaine's "Fables," "The Iliad," "The Æneid," Molière's "L'Avare," and other standard works. In this country, according to the New York *Independent*, the new language "has been used for the amusement of evening gatherings where all the guests are required to speak Esperanto under penalty of a fine of a cent for every English word spoken." To facilitate matters "a sheet containing the sixteen grammatical rules and a small vocabulary is sent out a day or two in advance with the invitation." In Paris last winter, states Mr. Emile Berr, who is quoted in the Boston *Transcript*, forty-five public courses in Esperanto were given, and it is taught in twenty French schools for boys and girls. Mr. Berr gives the following picture of Dr. Zamenhof:

"He is forty-six, a shy, gentle little man, seldom speaking, blushing when applauded, stuttering if suddenly accosted, and dismayed when people call him 'master.' He wears a close-fitting black frock coat. He is bald as an egg; his cheeks are bordered with a short gray beard; his strong, straight nose carries a pair of thick round glasses, and the eyes that look through them are mild and a trifle wearied."

Asked by Mr. Berr for the story of his invention, Dr. Zamenhof answered:

"The original idea of it is almost as old as I am. From my childhood I was haunted with the feeling that it was a lamentable thing for men to be kept apart by barriers of language; and I thought that that was a deplorable source of misunderstandings, quarrels, and stupid hatreds. So I began to dream of creating a universal language which should not supersede any one tongue but be auxiliary to each.

"I first thought of Latin. And I set to work to make it over into a modern language by adding the necessary words and forms to adapt Latin to the requirements of science, business, and present-day ideas. Then I gave up that plan, and made up my mind it would be better to create an entirely new language out of the pieces got from languages already existing. But here again the immensity of the undertaking discouraged me. As fast as I invented words I forgot them! Then another idea occurred to me. Why not learn the principal languages in use to-day (I already knew Russian, German, Greek, and Latin); retain the essential elements, the forms common to the majority of them; and weld those elements and those forms into a simplified idiom, reconstructed along logical lines, and stripped of all the difficulties and all the oddities that make linguistic studies so slow and painful.

"The language thus created had therefore a double advantage: as regards grammar, it was extremely easy to learn; and as regards vocabulary, very easy to remember, since most of its words were patterned after French, German, English, Greek, and Latin words already familiar. That is why I am able to say that a man of average education knows three-quarters of the Esperanto vocabulary before beginning to learn the lanagage."

Dr. Zamenhof's new language, it appears, has aroused enthusiastic opposition as well as zealous advocacy. Mr. G. S. Street, an English essayist, writing in the London *Outlook*, regards the Esperantists as "good-hearted idealists," but urges, nevertheless, that "the teaching and learning of Esperanto should be visited with thoroughly deterrent penalties and its 'literature' burnt by the common hangman." The whole affair, he adds, is evil. His argument is in part as follows:

"So far as language goes, governments understand each other already. A common tongue between individual people increases the chances of disagreement as well as those of agreement. The bitterest wars have been civil wars. Peace between nations does not depend on personal good-will, if that could be conciliated by a common language. For a long time Frenchmen have been popular in England and Germans unpopular; yet until the other day most Englishmen regarded France as a possible enemy at any moment and Germany as our best friend. These elementary facts induce me to believe the ulterior object of the Esperantists to be unattainable by the means they propose. But not for that reason is it to be pooh-poohed or scoffed at, nor should they be regarded as other than good-hearted idealists of whom the world has all too few.

"It is otherwise with their immediate object, the establishment of their common language. This is improbable, perhaps, but it is not impossible and stranger things have happened. It is the sort of idea which appeals to the thoughtlessly intelligent. Already two hundred and fifty thousand persons speak Esperanto, and tho it may never spread over the civilized world there is no reason why that quarter of a million should not be multiplied many times. The thing is increasing and should be promptly checked. . . . . .

"In the first place, the idea of an artificial language, concocted by some gifted professor, is an abomination. A language is not an arbitrary collection of symbols. It grows with the growth of the men who speak it. It is fragrant with memories and associations. It is intimate with the thought and feeling of laboring generations. A tongue from which all this is lacking is not a tongue for men. Of course the cultivated get more from a language than the uncultivated, and it is for this reason that I should deplore the abolition of Latin from our schools—or such efforts to teach it as are made in them—since without Latin the full significance, not only of the languages derived from it, but of English also can not be gained. But the illiterate, too, feel far more than the bare

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meaning of the words when they speak their own tongue. When one learns a foreign language, at first it is an affair of bare symbols, to be sure, but with increasing knowledge comes increasing significance. To learn an artificial language is to learn bare symbols only."

Mr. J. Pollen, president of the British Esperanto Association, answers Mr. Street's objection to an "artificial" language with the assertion that "he might as well argue that men and women ought not to wear clothes, and that every triumph of man over nature is an abomination." Esperanto, he adds, "will make the learning of foreign languages more easy; . . . it will do for Europe what Hindustani, a language made in much the same way, has done and is doing for India."

HOLMES THE "AMERICAN STERNE."

THE keynote of an estimate of the personality of Oliver Wendell Holmes, contained in a volume called "Cambridge Sketches," by Frank Preston Stearns, is given in the phrase which names him "the American Sterne;" for like his prototype, who found a vehicle for his wit in the oddities and mishaps of English middle-class domestic life, the American is shown to have sought his "in the contrasts and incongruities of a Boston boarding-house." By way of general estimate the writer says:

"He was a bright man, and possessed a peculiar mental quality of his own; but as we think of him now we can hardly call him a genius. He would evidently have liked in his youth to have made a profession of literature; but his verse lacked the charm and universality which made Longfellow popular so readily; nor did he possess the daring spirit of innovation with which Emerson startled and convinced his contemporaries. He first tried the law, and as that did not suit his taste he fell into medicine, but evidently without any natural bent or inclination for the profession. He was fond of the university, and when, after a temporary professorship at Dartmouth he was appointed lecturer on anatomy at the Harvard Medical School, his friends realized that he had found his right position."

Dr. Holmes's lecturing manner is described as "incisive and sometimes pungent, like his conversation, but always good-humored and well calculated to make an impression even on the most lymphatic temperaments." His ready fund of wit was often drawn upon to revive the drooping spirits of his audience, "and many of his jests have become a kind of legendary lore at the medical school." His literary sponsor, it appears, was James Russell Lowell, and his entrance into the field where he is widest known was accomplished in the following manner:

"The doctor was forty-eight when *The Atlantic Monthly* appeared before the public, and according to his own confession he had long since given up hope of a literary life. We hardly know another instance like it; but so much the better for him. He had no immature efforts of early life to regret; and when the cask was once tapped, the old wine came forth with a fine bouquet. When Phillips and Sampson consulted Lowell in regard to the editorship of the *Atlantic*, he said at once, 'We must get something from Oliver Wendell Holmes.' He was Lowell's great discovery, and proved to be his best card—a clear, shining light, and not an *ignis fatuus*.

"When the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast-table' first appeared, few were in the secret of its authorship, and everybody asked, Who is this new luminary? It was exactly what the more intelligent public wanted, and Holmes jumped at once into the position in literature which he has held ever since. Readers were delighted with his wit, surprised at his originality, and impressed by his proverbial wisdom. It was the advent of a sound, healthy intelligence, not unlike that of President Lincoln, which could deal with commonplace subjects in a significant and characteristic manner. The landlady's daughter, the schoolmistress, little Boston, and the young man called John are as real and tangible as the *dramatis personæ* in one of Molière's plays. They seem more real to us than many of the distinguished men and women whom we read of in the newspapers. . . . . .

"'The Autocrat of the Breakfast-table' is an irregular panorama of human life without either a definite beginning or end—unless the autocrat's offering himself to the schoolmistress (an incident which only took place on paper) can be considered so; but it is by no means a patchwork. He talks of horse-racing, the Millerites, elm-trees, Dr. Johnson, the composition of poetry, and much else; but these subjects are introduced and treated with an adroitness that amounts to consummate art. He is always at the boarding-house, and if his remarks sometimes shoot over the heads of his auditors, it is only because he intends that they should. The first ten or fifteen pages of the 'Autocrat' are written in such a cold, formal, and pedantic manner that the wonder is that Lowell should have published it. After that the style suddenly changes and the doctor becomes himself. It is like a conventional call which ends in a sympathetic conversation. Dr. Holmes's humor permeates every sentence that he wrote. Even in his most serious moods we meet with it in a peculiar phrase or the use of some exceptional word. Now and then his wit is very brilliant, lighting up its surroundings like the sudden appearance of a meteor."

The common view of the Cambridge school as a solidarity whose parts are cemented by the ties of personal friendship is not borne out by the account given of Dr. Holmes in his social relations. He lived, says the essayist, amid a comparatively narrow circle of friends and acquaintances. He attended the Saturday Club, but Lowell appears to have been the only member of it with whom he was on confidential terms. He was rarely seen or heard of in Longfellow's house. "He does not speak overmuch of Emerson in his letters, and does not mention Hawthorne, Thoreau, or Alcott, so far as we know, at all. They do not appear to have attracted his attention."

WAGNER'S IDEA OF ART.

RICHARD WAGNER is unique among men of genius, says Mr. Arthur Symons, inasmuch as in him "the musician, the poet, the playwright, the thinker, the administrator, all worked to a single end, built up a single structure." May we not admit, suggests Mr. Symons, that the typical art of the nineteenth century, the art for which it is most likely to be remembered, has been the art, musical and dramatic, of Richard Wagner? In *The Quarterly Review* (London) Mr. Symons reviews Wagner's theoretical writings, of which the main value, we are told, lies in the fact that they are "wholly the personal expression of an artist engaged in creative work, finding out theories by the way, as he comes upon obstacles or aids in the nature of things." It may be contended, says Mr. Symons, that only this kind of criticism, the criticism of a creative artist, is of any real value. In Wagner's "A Communication to My Friends," which is described as "an autobiography of ideas," we see the growth of a great artist, says the English critic, more clearly perhaps than we see it in any similar document. We read further:

"Wagner looked upon genius as an immense receptivity, a receptivity so immense that it filled and overflowed the being, thus forcing upon it the need to create. And he distinguished between the two kinds of artist, feminine and masculine; the feminine who absorbs only art, and the masculine who absorbs life itself, and from life derives the new material which he will turn into a new and living art. He shows us, in his own work, the gradual way in which imitation passed into production, the unconscious molding of the stuff of his art from within, as one need after another arose, the way in which every innovation in form came from a single cause: the necessity 'to convey to others as vividly and intelligibly as possible what his own mind's eye had seen.' . . . Nothing ever happens to him in vain; nothing that touches him goes by without his seizing it; he seizes nothing from which he does not wring out its secret, its secret for him. Thus his work and all his practical energies grow alike out of the very soil and substance of his life; thus they are vital, and promise continuance of vitality, as few other works and deeds of art in our time can be said to do."

Wagner's fundamental artistic ideas, says Mr. Symons, are formulated in two of the earliest of his prose writings, "The Art-work of the Future" (1849) and "Opera and Drama" (1851). Summarizing these ideas, Mr. Symons writes:

"In 'The Art-work of the Future' Wagner defines art as 'an

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immediate vital act,' the expression of man, as man is the expression of nature. . . . 'Art is an inbred craving of the natural, genuine, and uncorrupted man,' not an artificial product, and not a product of mind only, which produces science, but of that deeper impulse which is unconscious. . . . . .

"In his consideration of art Wagner sets down two broad divisions: art as derived directly from man, and art as shaped by man from the stuff of nature. In the first division he sets dance (or motion), tone, and poetry, in which man is himself the subject and agent of his own artistic treatment; in the second, architecture, sculpture, and painting, in which man 'extends the longing for artistic portrayal to the objects of surrounding, allied, ministering nature.'

"The ground of all human art is bodily motion. Into bodily motion comes rhythm, which is 'the mind of dance and the skeleton of tone.' Tone is 'the heart of man, through which dance and poetry are brought to mutual understanding.' This organic being is 'clothed upon with the flesh of the word.' Thus, in the purely human arts, we rise from bodily motion to poetry, to which man adds himself as singer and actor; and we have at once the lyric art-work out of which comes the perfected form of lyric, drama. This, as he conceives it, is to arise when 'the pride of all three arts in their own self-sufficiency shall break to pieces and pass over into love for one another.' . . . . . .

"Where we see tragedy supreme in Shakespeare and music supreme in Beethoven we see two great halves of one universal whole. It remains for the art of the future to combine these two halves in one; and, in the process of joining, all the other arts will find their place, as they help toward the one result."

Mr. Symonds concludes:

"Whether or no the 'art-work of the future' is to be on the lines which Wagner laid down; whether Beethoven may not satisfy the musical sense more completely on one side, and Shakespeare the dramatic sense on the other; whether, in any case, more has been demonstrated than that in Germany, the soil of music and the only soil in which drama has never taken root, music is required to give dramatic poetry life—all this matters little. A man with a genius for many arts has brought those arts, in his own work, more intimately into union than they have ever before been brought; and he has delighted the world with this combination of arts as few men of special genius have ever done with the representation of their work in special arts."

AFTER IMPRESSIONISM, WHAT?

"WE are on the morrow of something in art; are we likewise on the eve of something?" Charles Morice, with this sentence, opens in the *Mercure de France* an inquiry into the actual tendencies of the plastic arts. He reviews the present art situation, particularly in painting, points out the prevailing confusion of *genres* and virtual disappearance of schools, and essays to ascertain what ideals and ideas are influencing the work of the younger artists of the day. He has obtained interesting expressions of opinion from a considerable number of such artists, having put to them in an identical letter the following questions, among others of a more technical nature:

1. Do you feel that to-day art tends to take new directions?
2. Is impressionism dead? If so, is it possible to revive it?
3. What is the significance of Whistler, Fantin-Latour, and their coworkers? What have they left us?
4. Should the artist expect everything of nature, or should he demand of her only the means of giving form and expression to the ideas in his own mind? In his own introduction to the "symposium" Mr. Morice indicates the need of an examination and inquiry such as he has undertaken (it is not yet concluded) in the following passages, which we translate in condensed and free style:

It is manifest that in the present period the plastic arts hesitate between recollections and desires, the former weighing heavily on the latter and hindering them in their flights. There results a deep disorder, which for some time the annual expositions have plainly avowed.

The primitive masters and those of the decadence have met in a transition epoch and, as it were, walk side by side with the masters of the age of Pericles, those of the Renascence, those of the age of Louis XIV., and so on. All the ages seem to claim ours as a neighbor. And it is not merely the intimacy between innocence and corruption that is characteristic of our time; it is also the existence of corruption in innocence. The same soul is shared by conflicting tendencies, and lives sadly, producing fruitlessly, in this unstable equilibrium.

Mr. Morice goes on to say that in the past every artistic "revolution" was in reality a return to first principles of truth and beauty. The impressionists alone repudiated the past and claimed to have advanced, "evoluted," and discovered new principles of artistic representation. Indeed, the bolder spirits have advised the closing of the museums, because of the alleged futility and worthlessness of the older art. But impressionism is already a thing of the past, and instead of revolt there is aimless anarchy. Each artist is a law unto himself; he has his own philosophy, his own method, his own dogma.

Nevertheless, is not this chaos a sign of life? Is not the absence of rigidity and routine favorable to the emergence of a new artistic order based on freedom, spontaneity, and progress? Is not art on the eve of positive, significant developments? Mr. Morice does not answer these questions in his preliminary observations. He gives first the views of the artists who have responded to his request. Some of these replies follow:

GASTON PRUNIER: "Art in our individualistic epoch turns in vicious circles and eludes all classification, baffles all prevision. Return to intimate sincerity, to the realization of the whole personality of the artist, is absolutely necessary. Weary of feats of technical virtuosity, we must go forward toward an art of human expression, of synthetic emotion. Such an art will succeed analytical impressionism, which follows a method that has no future in art. Whistler created rare harmonies and left followers whose preciosity will excite interest so long as the general principles of the system are not discredited. But there is no room for neo-impressionism, and no sense in going over the same ground again. The time is ripe for a synthetic art. Personally, I should like to arrive at intimate communion with nature, borrow her characteristic expressions, get impressions from her, in order to realize some day whatever of humanity there may be in me."

CHARLES CAMOIN: "Art, I believe, evolves constantly; it renews and revivifies itself through the diversity of temperaments. In a general way, it seems to me that the task of our generation is to complete the work begun by the impressionists. Impressionism is not dead; it was a renascence and can not be done with, and those who are to appear will not be able to ignore it. . . . Yes, I expect everything from a study of nature."

M. E. SCHUFFENECKER: "In my view, the nineteenth century had no art; it merely had artists. I do not now see any new art except in Anglo-Saxondom. The art of this strong and self-conscious race bids fair to have interest and a future. Impression does not need to renew itself, but to complete its work. It is the logical, beautiful, wise way. . . . The artist should expect things of himself alone, of the inner flame kindled by nature. Nature, in truth, is the necessary frame, in which the artist moves, rises, and descends, has his moments of exaltation and quietude, receives and exhausts inspiration. But the whole principle of his art is in himself."

RENÉ PIOT: "No, there is no general movement; there are only anarchy and passionate individual strivings and searchings. Should a movement arise, it will not escape the law of succession, of evolution. It will be a reaction from preexisting forms, but an offspring of them at the same time. . . . It is difficult to define impressionism, there being so many shades of it, but the keen sense of life and the rejuvenation of technique we owe that movement will always remain, enriching art as romanticism has literature. Nature? All our troubles result from oscillations between nature and personality, between passive receptivity and emotional activity. Our perfect esthetic will be formed when harmony between these two forces shall have been achieved. The great quality is sincerity—not mere photographic copying of nature, that some mistake for 'sincerity,' but in the sense of personal elevation and exaltation in the presence of nature, communion with her, and capacity to receive and interpret her revelations."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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SCIENCE AND INVENTION.

OUR NATIONAL CARELESSNESS.

THE frightful accident in New York city last week, when a car from the elevated road plunged into the street, killing or injuring nearly every one in it, recalls rather unpleasantly the fact that we stand first among all the countries of the world in the number of lives lost through accidents, and prompts the lay observer to ask whether we are not able to direct some of our world-famous ingenuity toward their prevention. An attempt to answer this question discloses a remarkable state of things, which is brought out by George Ethelbert Walsh in an article on "Accident-preventing Devices in America," in *Cassier's Magazine* (New York). He finds that we invent devices for the prevention of accidents in almost every department of industrial and home life, but we do not use them; such of them as are good are adopted in foreign countries, not in the land of their origin. The fact is, Mr. Walsh says, that abroad people are made to look out for the safety of employees, travelers, and so on. Here the law has little to say, and we do as we choose. Evidently we choose to be careless, if we are to judge from the appalling annual death-list. Says Mr. Walsh:

"An attempt to explain this peculiar condition of affairs is not so difficult, for the cause may be summed up in the simple statement that the employment of safety-devices is not enforced in this country by law so rigidly as in most of the manufacturing countries of Europe. The inventor of safety-devices is too often discouraged in his work through the lack of cooperation of manufacturing companies and of the Government. While we stand first in respect to activity in inventions, we are nearly at the foot in respect to the enforcement of adequate laws for protecting human life. . . . . .

"Comparisons of deaths and accidents in the leading manufacturing countries indicate the results of a policy which fails to unite the manufacturer's interests with those of the inventor. Among the miners alone the number of accidents in this country surpasses those of any similar kind in any country of Continental Europe. For every thousand miners employed in the United States the average number killed each year is 2.36; in Germany, 1.88; in Belgium, 1.62; in England, 1.58; in Italy, 1.30, and in France, 0.85. While it is possible that the local conditions of mines and of methods pursued in getting out the ore by improved machinery may partly explain the difference thus indicated, it is impossible to escape the conclusion that lax laws and non-employment of proper safety-devices are responsible for a great unnecessary loss of life.

"Our railroad accidents show conclusive evidence that all possible efforts are not being put forth to safeguard human life. In the last five years 38,890 people were killed on the railroads of the United States, and 253,823 were injured. To make these statistics seem even more emphatic, it may be stated that the average number of people killed per day for the past five years has been 21, and the number injured per day for the past five years has been 139. Such an appalling list of the maimed and killed employees and patrons of the railroads of a single country makes war seem somewhat tame in comparison. . . . . .

"A recent comparison of accident cases showed that the number of deaths from accidental causes in the United States was greater than that in all of Europe combined. For every three men killed in Europe by accidents, five were sacrificed in this country."

Even when employers are alive to the interests of their men, Mr. Walsh says, the latter are often wedded to their own careless ways, preferring to run risks rather than take a little extra trouble. He writes:

"An employer of a large force of men recently remarked that it would take half of his time to investigate the alleged safety-devices brought to him. . . . The few that were adopted proved unpopular with the men. They objected to using something to protect themselves from accidents which they could prevent by exercising a little caution. 'For instance,' said he, 'there were a great many truckmen employed who had to load and unload heavy barrels. A number of broken legs each year showed that the work had in it an element of danger. The truckmen were provided with skids equipped with ratchet teeth, which device effectually prevented a barrel from slipping away from them and rolling down. But it was of little use. The truckmen laughed at them, called them toys for children, and went ahead loading and unloading without the skids. They preferred the risk of breaking their legs to using such inventions. Nothing short of a law compelling the men to use the skids would make such an invention of practical value.

"An employer of a large number of stone- and marble-cutters had a similar experience with the use of goggles which were invented for protecting the workmen's eyes from dust and flying pieces of stone."

Such instances as these clearly show, Mr. Walsh believes, the necessity of educational influences to train workers to appreciate the value of safety-appliances. Among such influences he rates very highly "museums of security" like the very successful one in Amsterdam, Holland. An effort to establish a similar museum here has already made good headway, and it is probable that before long a building will be provided for exhibiting and classifying inventions devised for safeguarding human life. Says the writer:

"Such a museum would furnish illustrative material for both workmen and manufacturers. Statistics would furnish valuable data to those interested, and specialized work in the various industries would make it possible for manufacturers to learn at once if there were inventions made to cover any particular field of work. Inventors would also be helped in their work, and this is important, for while some fields are overcrowded with safety-devices, others have been almost entirely neglected. . . . . .

"A museum of security should bring together in a classified exhibition the patented and the non-patented appliances for protecting life in all the different departments of human endeavor. Their orderly exhibit would do as much toward educating employees to use them properly as toward inducing employers to adopt them. This has been particularly exemplified in the Amsterdam museum, where practical illustrations of the respective values of the different devices are exhibited. Machinery, with all the safety-appliances in place, is in operation during the hours of exhibition, and even dummy workmen are in position to show how the appliances operate. Red paint is used on every moving part of the machinery to indicate danger. Rapidly revolving emery-wheels are surrounded by hoods to protect the operators if the wheels should fly to pieces, and buzz-saws are similarly cased in so that no arm or leg can be injured. . . . . .

"When it is realized that the life and health of every skilled workman represent an asset that a factory can not afford to ignore, the value of using all possible protective methods for insuring the same will be appreciated. We in this country have been slower to recognize this fact than have the employers of labor in Europe, but efforts are now being made in the right direction. . . . There are every year in this country thousands of needless accidents in mines, in factories, and on railroads that fill our courts with damage-suits aggregating millions of dollars. While some of these suits are dismissed, the cost of defending them in the courts is an important item. It therefore follows that, as a matter of investment, every employer of labor should encourage cooperation to increase the use of safety-devices in factory, shop, and mine."

Across South America by Wireless.—Among the many important installations of wireless telegraphy already in operation, or soon to be constructed, one of the most interesting, we are told by the writer of a brief note in *Harper's Weekly* (New York, September 2), is the proposed line in Peru between Puerto Bermudez and Iquitos, a distance of 1,000 kilometers (621.37 miles). He says:

"The reasons influencing the choice of wireless telegraphy for this purpose apply with equal force in other places in South America and Africa, and are chiefly the superstition of the natives as regards the wires and insulators and the difficulty of penetrating the forests and jungles to construct an ordinary line. In Peru it has been considered for some time of the greatest importance to establish communication between Lima and Iquitos, the main port on the Amazon, and while there was telegraphic communication across the Cordilleras, the wires did not extend beyond Puerto

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Bermudez, which was accordingly made the starting-point of the wireless system. A contract has been awarded to a German company to provide the apparatus, and this will give it a virtual monopoly of wireless telegraphy in Peru. Between Puerto Bermudez and Iquitos the plan is to have three intermediate stations and ultimately to extend the line to Manaos on the Amazon and then down the river to Para, thus affording direct communication between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. There already is a cable up the Amazon, but the service is frequently interrupted, and in the upper water the swift currents would have rendered the laying of such a means of communication impossible. As wireless telegraphy has proved successful at sea, between islands, and over large tracts of land in Alaska, it is interesting to have a practical demonstration as to whether equally good results will be achieved in actual practise in the impenetrable forests of South America. If such is the case, there will be, without question, a wide application of the idea, as it will put within reach at small expense districts otherwise quite isolated."

A PHONOGRAPHIC POSTAL CARD.

THE latest thing in postals is one on which a phonographic message may be recorded by means of a special form of talking-machine, the message being reproduced in the sender's voice by the recipient, who uses a similar machine. This novelty has just been introduced in Paris, and, if it is as efficient as it is represented to be, it ought to be popular. We translate below a description contributed to *La Nature* (Paris) by Mr. Henri-René d'Allemagne. He says:

PREPARING A PHONOGRAPHIC POSTAL CARD.

"The phonopostal is an apparatus intended to record and afterward reproduce the human voice with the aid of a piece of cardboard of the size and shape of a postal card. The idea of replacing the wax-covered cylinder of the ordinary phonographs with a sheet of paper that may be sent like a letter had already been conceived by the great intellect of Jules Verne, who, pushing present inventions to their extreme limits, foresaw much that would one day be successfully realized. Nevertheless, Jules Verne was not the inventor, properly speaking, of dirigible balloons or submarines; he was endowed with a sort of second sight, and it was left for more practical minds to realize the dreams of the charming writer who was the delight of our younger days.

"The advantages of the phonopostal are many; in these days of extended tours there can be nothing more attractive than to put in one's automobile or in a corner of one's bag this apparatus, which takes up no more room than two or three boxes of letter-paper. By adding a few dozen cards prepared for use as records, we may, at each stopping-place, send to those at home fresh and, as we may say, vibrant news of our journey. On the other hand, the explorer may also receive news from his family—not the limited news of the ordinary epistle, but news in which he may hear the soft voices of his children, and recognize the sweet prattle of babies yet too small to hold pen or pencil; and this charming sensation of freshness and remembrance may be renewed again and again, for one of the peculiarities of the phonocard is its power of indefinite use.

"Besides these evident advantages, the new invention may also be used to note down the songs and airs peculiar to the country through which one is traveling. A double souvenir may thus be obtained; for on the back of the phonocard may be pasted photographs intended to commemorate the most interesting views of the journey."

The accompanying figure shows the mode of recording the sender's voice; a girl, leaning on a table, is speaking into the machine. The diaphragm of the instrument has a sapphire point that traces the record in a sensitive layer of what is called 'sonorine' spread over the surface of the card. The essence of the invention lies in the composition of this substance, which, altho easily spread on a sheet of cardboard, possesses all the advantages of the wax with which the ordinary phonograph cylinders and gramophone disks are covered. In addition sonorine is so hard that it will safely bear the roughest handling that it is likely to get in passing through the mails. To quote again:

"The sounds are recorded in a spiral, beginning at the edge of the card and growing continually smaller until the last circle is barely as large as a 10-centime piece. The groove made is so hard that even the two postmarks are not able to destroy more than a syllable or two. . . . . .

"On one card there may easily be inscribed 75 to 80 words, which is sufficient to give ample news. We should not forget that the phonocard merely aims at filling the same place as the illustrated postal card. . . . . .

"One of the most appreciable advantages of this new mode of communication is to assure the relative secrecy of the correspondence. Until it is so well known to the public that janitors feel obliged to provide themselves with the reproducing apparatus, the members of this honorable body will be deprived of the pleasure of reading the correspondence of tenants. . . . We have almost a new cipher, easy of use and demanding neither preliminary study nor special knowledge. . . . . .

"The phonographic correspondence may be put on the side reserved for the address, and this may be written over the grooves traced by the recording diaphragm, without the slightest interference with the reproduction of the sounds.

"The construction of the apparatus is particularly delicate, for it was necessary to make the price very low in order to attract the public. . . . It was necessary to regulate the machines so that each would reproduce, as exactly as if it had just come from the workshop, a record made several months or several years previously. This result has been reached by a minute regulation of the speed of each of the talking-machines, for it must not be forgotten that the sounds vary considerably with the speed with which the handle is turned. The final problem to be solved was the difficulty met by the constructors in making diaphragms of extreme sensitiveness—as well that which serves to make the record as that which enables the receiver to hear the sounds inscribed on the card."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE DOMESTICATION OF THE AFRICAN ZEBRA.

THE use of the zebra in Africa as the horse is used in other countries seems to be on the eve of accomplishment. Isolated cases of zebras trained to harness have been noted from time to time in these columns, but the training of the animals in large numbers is now being attempted, with good prospect of success, in the Kongo country under the auspices of the Belgian Government. We are informed by Mr. Gustave Regelsperger, who writes on the subject in *La Nature* (Paris), that Lieutenant Nys, of the Belgian army, who went to the Kongo in November, 1902, to study the training of elephants and zebras, has obtained very important results with the latter quadrupeds. Having captured ninety zebras at Sampwe, in Katanga, July 30, 1904, he has been able to tame them and is now undertaking to train them to harness. Says Mr. Regelsperger:

"After an energetic chase, the herd was shut up all together in a vast enclosure built for the purpose. Finding themselves prisoners, the zebras first galloped madly about for two hours. When they had calmed down they began to browse about the kraal. As there was no water in the enclosure it was necessary to bring it to them; this was no slight task, as 2,700 liters [about 675 gallons] of water had to be carried daily from a distance of a kilometer [a little over half a mile]. To make the animals drink was another difficult matter. As they would not go near the zinc vessels in which the water was offered to them, these were sunk in the

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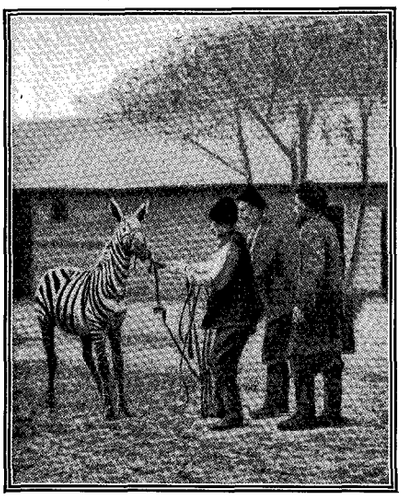
ground and their edges were hidden under the grass, but even then the dainty animals kept away, doubtless because of the odor of the natives who had handled the vessels.

"The result was that there were some deaths in the first days following the capture; certain animals persisted in refusing food and drink, . . . and some after long fasting began to eat gluttonously, dying of overfeeding.



TRAINING A ZEBRA AT GAGRI, TRANSCAUCASIA.

"When the survivors had settled down, after about 15 days, the capture of individuals was undertaken, and they were shut up installs. This was not to the zebras' taste and they threw themselves against the walls, tearing off the skin, so that there were five additional deaths from this cause.

"Of the ninety zebras captured, only sixty were now left, but they were in good health and had become quite docile. They could be approached without their kicking or biting."

Apparently Lieutenant Nys's report stops at this point, the training of the zebras to harness being still in progress. As this training has now been accomplished a number of times, he will probably have little trouble with it. Mr. Regelsperger adds a few facts about the previous taming or training of zebras. In 1879 a young animal, whose mother had been killed in the chase, was tamed by Major Cambier, of the Belgian army. It followed him like a dog, but he seems to have made no attempt to train it to harness. Later, Dr. Paul Reichard of the German expedition of 1881–84 asserted in his report that the zebra was destined to render great service to Africa as a transport animal. He said that he had seen at Zanzibar a zebra that had been trained to saddle and bridle. In 1893 the German traveler Uechtriz saw a number of tame quaggas (a species of zebra) at Cape Town. He had previously seen a merchant in Namaqualand mounted on one of these animals. The writer goes on to say:

"Several persons have succeeded in training zebras and reducing them to perfect docility. Some circus managers have also had excellent results, exhibiting zebras, like horses, in various evolutions. Hagenbeck, the well-known dealer in wild animals at Hamburg, who has had many zebras in his establishment, declares that they are quickly tamed. It seems certain, then, that the numerous zebras that roam over the whole southeastern region of the African continent may be some day of practical use.

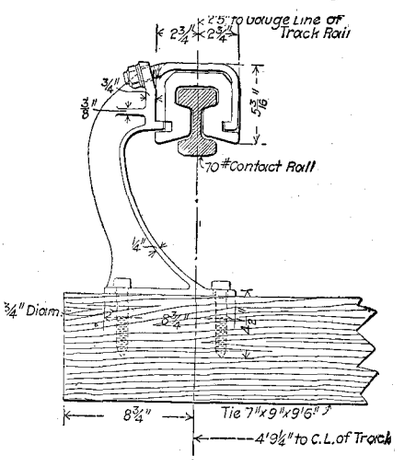
"The part of the Kongo where there are most zebras is certainly Katanga, where Lieutenant Nys is carrying on his experiments. These quadrupeds live in the grassy plains of that region, and do not appear to pass to the west of the Lualaba, while to the east they are found also in the prairies near Tanganyika and throughout the country between this lake and the east coast. They are often found living fraternally with antelopes.

"Major Cambier reports that along the east shore of Tanganyika the herds of zebras sometimes reach the number of 80 to 100 animals. In Katanga Dr. Reichard met in a single day about ten herds of 20 to 30 zebras each. Captain Lemaire, in 1899, several times saw herds of zebras in the same country. The mission of Lieutenant Nys will certainly make a great step toward the domestication of the zebra. These creatures can do great things in Africa, and, especially, their use will enable travelers to dispense with negro porters. As a material confirmation of the preceding, Mr. Martel sends us the accompanying photograph, showing the training of a zebra by him in 1903 at Gagri, Transcaucasia. At this place his Imperial Highness the Prince of Oldenburg has attempted the domestication of several of the animals with a view to training them to the saddle."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE DEADLY THIRD RAIL MADE INNOCUOUS.

A HARMLESS third rail is promised the public by the New York Central road in its new suburban electric equipment. The deadliness is to be subtracted by the simple expedient of covering the rail, or rather of boxing it in, and making the contact from beneath. This plan has been tried successfully on an experimental section. Its manner of working is shown in the accompanying illustrations, taken from *The Street Railway Journal* (New York, September 2). Says this paper:

"The third rail, as shown, is supported every 11 feet by iron brackets, which hold the insulation blocks by a special clamp. The blocks, which are in two pieces, are 6 inches long, and are designed so as to be interchangeable. Experiments are now being conducted with insulators of reconstructed granite, vitrified clay, rubber, and indurated fiber to determine the relative advantages of these materials for the conditions. Between the supporting brackets the upper part of the rail is covered by wooden sheathing. This sheathing, as shown, is applied in three parts, which are nailed together. At the joints where the third rails are bonded, and at the feeder taps, the wooden sheathing is mortised. . .



Courtesy of "The Street Railway Journal."

SECTION OF UNDER-CONTACT THIRD RAIL.

"The principal reason for adopting the under-contact rail is that it can be more thoroughly protected, and hence is safer than the ordinary type of contact rail. There are no projecting live edges or bolts, and no slot between the third rail and its cover through which an animal or any person ignorant of danger can make contact with the live conductor. The only possibility of reaching the third rail is from below and by an upward movement, and this fact, it is thought, greatly decreases the chance of injury from shock. Other advantages which it is claimed are possessed by this arrangement over the ordinary type of third rail are: (1) There is less strain on the insulators, as the pressure from the shoe acts against instead of with gravity; (2) the board protection, having a continuous support, is less apt to crack and warp; (3) the rail is

Courtesy of "The Street Railway Journal."

EXPERIMENTAL TRACK NEAR SCHENECTADY, WITH TOP-CONTACT PROTECTED RAIL.

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more protected from the weather, and hence less liable to corrode; (4) the contact surface is more thoroughly protected from sleet and snow; (5) the construction is self-cleaning, and as there is a much greater space between the lower portion of the third rail and the tie, there will be less danger of an accumulation of snow, ice, and rubbish, and consequently less leakage."

In an editorial notice the journal above quoted expresses the opinion that no little interest will be created in the railroad world by the decision of the New York Central to use this new form of third rail. It says:

"The under-contact third rail has been suggested before, but the system has never been worked out, or at any rate tried out, before. The principal objection which has been raised to this form of construction in the past has been the difficulty of designing a satisfactory system of switches and crossings, but this seems to have been more theoretical than actual. In other respects the system certainly possesses a number of advantages over the ordinary type of third rail, even with a protecting cover, and the adoption of the system by such a large corporation as the New York Central, and upon such an important scale as will be involved in this company's 'electrical zone,' promises to settle for all time the relative advantages of the two systems of third-rail contact."

VEGETABLE JUICES AND TUBERCULOSIS.

IT has recently been reported by Dr. John F. Russell, of New York, that he has successfully used the juices of fruits and vegetables in the diet of tuberculous patients. The wide announcement of this fact in the daily press as "a new consumption-cure" calls forth a word of protest from *The Medical Record* (New York, September 2). Says this paper editorially:

"Dr. Russell has not found a 'new cure' for consumption, nor even a 'new consumption-remedy,' as one of the medically sanest of the metropolitan papers labeled it, nor do we believe that he would authorize such a designation. He has simply found what may prove to be a useful adjuvant in the therapeutic management of this disease, and only harm can come from calling it a cure or even a remedy. He has for some time been treating tuberculosis along the recognized lines of hypernutrition and fresh air and has met with a fairly satisfactory measure of success in a class of patients to whom the sanatorium treatment is not available. Meeting, however, with certain cases of the apparently curable type in which ill success attended his best efforts, he was driven to the conclusion that there was an unknown something lacking in the prescribed diet of proteids, hydrocarbons, and carbohydrates, the want of which retarded or prevented the cure. This unknown something he was led to believe, by some process of reasoning which the published report does not explain, to be vegetable juice. The lack was supplied by the addition to the diet of the expressed juices of all the vegetables in the market and also of apples and pineapples."

That this addition to the dietary is theoretically sound is acknowledged by the writer, who quotes from Fernie's book, "Meals Medicinal," the statement that the constitution of vegetable foods is "altogether of a building-up character, as distinguished from animal life (which involves excretions of the broken-down products as part of its being)." It is possible, he thinks, that the raw vegetable juices may be just what is needed to insure assimilation of the proteids, carbohydrates, and fats contained so abundantly in the dietary ordinarily prescribed for the consumptive. To quote further:

"Dr. Russell claims (or is said to claim, in the newspaper reports) to have had eleven 'cures' of pulmonary tuberculosis since January 7, when he began to add vegetable juice to the dietary of his patients. We hope he did not really make such a claim, for it is only a wild optimist who would pronounce any consumptive cured in six months, and an assertion of this sort only throws discredit on the reasonableness of the one who makes it. The patient may have taken on flesh, the cough and fever may have ceased (temporarily), and the tubercle bacilli may have disappeared for a time from the sputum—but a 'cold' may bring them all back next week. It is claims such as this, made by physicians, which justify the headliners of the lay press in announcing the discovery of infallible cures, and raising false hopes in the minds of the incurably ill. It is possible, and we hope it is true, that Dr. Russell has discovered an aid to assimilation which will be an adjuvant to the recognized methods of treatment of tuberculosis, but that is the most that can be tentatively admitted, and even that remains to be proved."

THEORIES OF THE UNIVERSAL ETHER.

THAT scientific men should spend not one, but many lifetimes in trying to work out the mechanical constitution of a substance whose existence can not be demonstrated by the direct evidence of any of the senses, is certainly a striking fact. The reasons why they feel obliged to do this, and the degree of success that has been reached, are stated in the following editorial paragraphs in *The Electrical World and Engineer* (New York):

"The universal ether has never possessed any experimental right to exist. No one has ever yet seen, felt, or tasted it. It is probably correct to say that there is not a single observation or recorded experiment which brings the ether home to our senses as ether. Nevertheless, we all believe that it exists, because our minds can not grasp action across a void, and in order to make our mental conceptions work, we are obliged to create a something out of nothing. We can not imagine, for example, that the sun's light, which we know by observation takes about 500 seconds to reach our planet, 'does time' in empty space, or spends these 8 minutes in nothing—doing nothing. Again, the space within a highly exhausted glass tube can not, in our minds, be regarded as empty of everything; for if we place the tube inside an electrically excited solenoid, we can ascertain that magnetic energy exists in the tube. We are unable to think that magnetic energy can exist in nothing. To meet these and numerous like difficulties, the ether has been invented.

"Once having adopted the ether, its duties develop at an astonishing rate. It has to fill all space, or stretch out to infinity in all directions, without any holes or blank cavities. It must permeate all substances to the innermost, more thoroughly even than water permeates a submerged sponge. The motion of matter must give rise to no displacement in the permeating or environing ether. The ether must be capable of absorbing electric and magnetic energy, and of transmitting gravitational stresses. Electromagnetic energy must be propagated through it at a uniform and definite speed. All of these properties must be everywhere the same—to ranges of billions of miles, so that the ether in which the earth floats next year must be, within measurable limits, identical in behavior to the ether in which the planet floats to-day, for the entire solar system is supposed to shift its position in space by half a billion miles per annum. It must be admitted that an ether which can do all this is a very remarkable entity. Speculations as to what it can be like have been ripe for many decades. Some estimated that it was jelly-like. Others preferred to suppose it made up of distinct grains like extremely small shot. The astronomer wanted one kind and the electrician wanted another. Some scientists postulated for it a rigidity much greater than that of steel, together with a tenuity much below that of the rarefied gases in a Crookes tube."

The occasion for these remarks is a paper contributed to *The Journal of the Franklin Institute* (Philadelphia, July) by Prof. W. S. Franklin, in which the writer discusses the propagation of electric waves on a theory of the ether propounded many years ago by the English physicist Clerk Maxwell. Maxwell supposed the ether to consist of contiguous spheres that rotated one upon another like cog-wheels, and from this hypothesis he deduced very ingeniously many of the properties described above. Professor Franklin finds that this theory helps to account for the behavior of electric waves over wires. Unfortunately the theory is merely a mechanical symbolism, which aids the mind in understanding, without professing to represent, actuality. Is it permissible to use such a theory? The writer in *The Electrical World and Engineer* believes that it is. He says:

"It may be permitted any honest man to doubt the existence of

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this cog-sphere ether, without being guilty of heresy. We do not suppose that Maxwell ever believed that the ether was built up of alternate positive and negative cog-spheres. As to the real nature of the ether, we are as much in the dark as ever. But if the Maxwell theory offers an ideal machine whose actions can be followed in imagination to a final result, which is the same as that of the actual but unknown machinery, we are justified in using the ideal mechanism merely to assist our ideas. It does not follow that, because we consider the actual mechanism is different from the ideal mechanism, we must avoid all use of the latter as a tool. This is Professor Franklin's position as we understand it."

THE ARCTIC AS A HEALTH RESORT.

IT has been proposed by a physician of Washington, D. C., Dr. Sohon, to take a party of consumptives to the arctic in search of health. Dr. Sohon has been with Peary to Greenland, and was struck while there with the suitableness of the arctic regions for the climatic treatment of tuberculosis. He writes on the subject in the Washington *Medical Annals*, and what he has to say is thus abstracted and commented upon in *The Medical Record* (New York):

"He believes that a summer spent in Omenak Fjord or Inglefield Gulf, in Greenland, would serve to establish a cure, or insure its accomplishment afterward, in nearly all cases in which the disease is not already completely overbalanced by septic complications. Four tuberculous patients who have gone to these places have been cured promptly and effectually. In other words, 100 per cent. in four cases have been cured. This evidence is not conclusive, and still this list includes all the known cases. The natives of Northern Greenland do not have tuberculosis, altho there has been ample opportunity for infection from visiting whites. The greatest single drawback in the treatment of tuberculosis is the continual occurrence of unavoidable exacerbations of a catarrhal, pneumonic, or septic nature. Catarrhal conditions do not exist in the arctic, and septic bacteria are not native. In the summer months all life is forced and stimulated; men and animals quickly recover from the winter anemias, and there is just such a forcing of vitality that consumptives especially need. Patients here would be removed from all influences which favor an extension of the disease or militate against an improvement. The never-setting sun uninterruptedly imparts energy; the atmosphere is dustless and sterile; there is entire freedom from danger of colds and other ills which cause setbacks. The sailing distance from New York to the extreme end of Baffin Bay is about half that between New York and Europe, and from the northern railroad connection at Sydney, Nova Scotia, to the arctic circle the distance is approximately that between Boston and Key West. The waters are usually smooth. From the zeros of the mornings in May there is a constant rise of temperature until past the midday, or, as we should say, midsummer, and then a decline toward the evening in September. During most of this long day the temperature is above the freezing-point, and rises in the forties and fifties after the snow melts in the spring and the rocks are sun-warmed. The usual fluctuations in any twenty-four hours do not equal the changes which occur in the single hour following our sunrise and sunset. The question of a proper food supply in the Far North is not radically different from the same question here. In that region the time required for a cure of tuberculosis is far shorter than in other climes, and so the summer voyage might suffice; at least it would lay a good foundation for a permanent cure. The writer urges that consideration be given to the dedication of a hospital-ship for the purpose of carrying patients to the favored spots in the North which hold the complete essentials to a cure. Here is an opportunity, he thinks, for some philanthropist to give a sum sufficient to purchase and equip a vessel for an experimental voyage to the North."

It was announced in the early summer that Dr. Sohon's plan was actually to be carried out, and the scheme progressed so far, at least, as the sending of an agent to Halifax to negotiate a charter for a vessel, but whether or not the party was organized and actually set sail for Greenland the writer of the notice in *The Medical Record* is unable to say.

FACES AND OCCUPATIONS.

"THAT man looks just like an actor;" "I should say he was a grocer's clerk"—these and similar assertions are common enough, and seem to indicate a popular impression that a man's occupation may or ought to be told by a glance at his face. That disease has its effect on the physiognomy every physician knows. A skilful diagnosis is often made from a study of the patient's face, and we have the authority of an editorial writer in *The Lancet* (London) for the statement that occupation has undoubtedly a similar influence. He says:

"Associated with the various occupations in life there is undoubtedly a type of face which more or less betrays the calling of its owner. Medical men, especially in hospital practise, find acquaintance with these types valuable. They may not be able, with the shrewdness of Sherlock Holmes or of his still acuter brother, to read a man's past, present, and future by a glance at him in the street, but they are able to gauge with considerable accuracy how far the history of the case, as given by the patient, is a truthful one, and how far it fits with his probable occupation in life. Calling must certainly have some influence over the physiognomy of the cabman, the omnibus driver, the butler, or the groom; each frequently possesses a type of face which wears so characteristic an expression as to make it not difficult to identify the vocation accompanying it. We speak also of the legal face, the scientific face, the ecclesiastical face, the musical face, and artistic face, the dramatic face, and the military face. This is merely a broad classification, but we disbelieve in the claims of the keen observer to an ability to differentiate to a finer degree. We have heard of hospital physicians who claimed to be able to say from a glance at the face that this or that man was a butcher, a grocer, a bank clerk, a lawyer's clerk, a commercial traveler, a stock-broker, a wine merchant, and so on. We think that the fame of these medical men as rough-and ready detectives has been largely manufactured for them by enthusiastic clinical clerks; but that many medical men do possess great insight into the occupations of those who come before them is a truism. The question is often debated whether physiognomy is a growth of vocation or whether it shows that the vocation chosen is in accordance with the particular capacity and ability of the person to whom it belongs. In other words, if the barrister does not show the 'legal face,' the aspiring priest the 'ecclesiastical face,' the medical student the 'physicianly face,' the soldier the 'military face,' and so on, is that a sign that they have mistaken their calling? Is the man who 'doesn't look a bit like a doctor' likely to fail because his physiognomonic qualification is wanting? Or will he, whatever his original features, gradually come to acquire the type of the profession to which he belongs? The answer to the question is, of course, that both theories are right. A certain kind of face, the so-called scientific face, is so often seen among modern medical students as to prove that the owner of that cast of countenance is likely to adopt medicine as a career. Conversely, whatever the original cast of features a medical man may have possessed, the anxious, delicate, and absorbing work of medical practise will put a stamp upon them."

SCIENCE BREVITIES.

To judge by the number of asylum cases, insanity in Canada has increased 25 per cent. since 1891. In that year, according to the *Montréal Médical*, the insane-asylums of the Dominion contained 13,342 cases out of a population of 4,719,891. To-day 16,662 lunatics are kept under restraint in the various institutions, and the population is not more than 5,318,606. The periodical attributes the alarming increase in the number of the demented to immigration and the laxity of medical inspection at the various ports, which is said to be a mere formality. It asserts that 699,500 immigrants have entered Canada in the last ten years, of which 3,000 were either partially or wholly insane.

"PRINTING telegraphs require a high degree of fine mechanical skill for their construction and maintenance," says *The Scientific American Supplement*. "Skill of that kind does not exist in new countries, and it is only recently that one or two printing telegraphs have reached the stage at which it pays telegraph administrations in these new countries to import and cultivate such skill. These big new countries are essentially rough and ready, and for the rough-and-ready stage of civilization nothing can beat the Morse key and sounder. Even the United States is only now emerging from this rough-and-ready stage of national existence, at any rate so far as telegraphy is concerned, and it is the opinion of those who are in a position to judge, that there will be a great development of printing telegraphy in the United States within the next ten years. The conditions are at last ripe for the change. Saving of wire owing to the great distances in America is important, and saving of labor owing to the high wages is a factor not to be neglected."

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

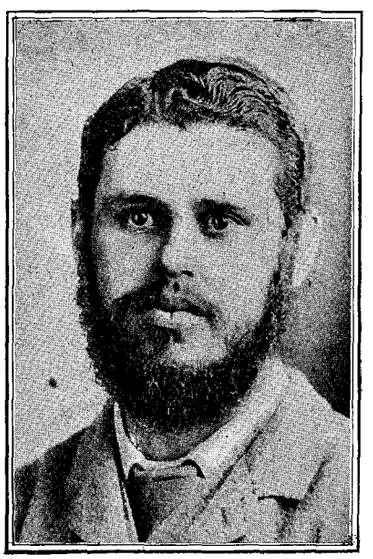
CHRISTIAN TENETS THE JEWS MAY ADOPT.

TO find a celebrated and influential Jew advising his race to "follow the letter of the Law in the spirit of the Gospel" is a decidedly interesting feature of the religious situation. Mr. Claude G. Montefiore, president of the Anglo-Jewish Association, founder of *The Jewish Quarterly Review* and a man of light and leading in British Jewry, gives his fellows this counsel in the current number of *The Hibbert Journal* (London). Before giving this advice, he takes occasion to remark to the Christian readers of his article that some of the doctrines which they imagine to be distinctively Christian were, and are, Jewish. The conception of the fatherhood of God and of His loving-kindness, for example, has been paraded as Christian, "whereas to the rabbinic, mediæval, and modern Jew it was, and is, the A B C of his religion." Similarly, the doctrines "that reconcilement with one's neighbor must precede reconcilement with God, or that the best alms are those given in secret, or that impure thoughts are evil as well as impure deeds, or that there is peculiar joy in heaven over the repentant—these doctrines and several others are not only rabbinic commonplaces, but familiar Jewish maxims."

The common Jewish objections to Christianity are that some of its teaching is "unpractical and overstrained," that the ideal is so high as to be "incapable of realization," that "if some maxims were literally obeyed, there would be a subversion of law and order, and universal confusion," that "the tendency of the teaching is to make a man take a too selfish interest in the saving of his own soul," and that it "points toward an ascetic morality."

In one divergence of doctrine between the rabbinic religion and that of the synoptic Gospels, however, Mr. Montefiore seems to incline toward the latter. He says:

"The rabbinic religion followed the prevailing doctrine of the Old Testament in holding that, on the whole, the right principle of human conduct, and the great principle of divine conduct, was that of proportionate requital, or tit for tat. I do not mean to say that other principles, such as that of the divine forgiveness, did not frequently cross the principle of tit for tat, but still it seems true to say that tit for tat occupies a very large place in Jewish ethics and religion, a larger place than the facts of life or our highest ethical and religious conceptions can fully justify and approve. Now the teaching of the synoptic Gospels seems to traverse that doctrine in many different ways. As between man and man we have, for instance, the teaching, 'If ye love them which love you, what thank have ye?' and the reception of the prodigal son, and as between God and man the teaching seems more emphatic still. Not only that the sun rises on the evil as well as the good, but also, in the vineyard, 'I will give unto this last even as unto thee.' . . . . . .



MR. CLAUDE G. MONTEFIORE,
President of the Anglo-Jewish Association and founder of *The Jewish Quarterly Review*. He advises his coreligionists to "follow the letter of the Law in the spirit of the Gospel."

"Perhaps one reason, tho not the deepest, why the doctrine of tit for tat is less thought of in the Gospels, is their rather pronounced antagonism to earthly good fortune, their strong sympathy with, or even partiality for, the weak, the miserable, and the poor. The only treasures of any value are the treasures to be attained in heaven. The treasures of earth are transitory from a double reason—the individual dies, and the old order is rapidly nearing its close. The same thoughts meet us not infrequently in the rabbinic literature, but we note in the Gospels a kind of passionate glorification of renunciation and adversity as marks of true discipleship, and as the one sure passport to heaven. This note goes beyond—how far rightly is another question—the rabbinic 'chastisements of love.' The soul is all. 'Adversity is the blessing of the New Testament.' With incomparable eloquence and power the Gospels disclose to us one aspect of the ultimate truth, one facet of reality, to which we can never again be blind, even tho we realize that it is by no means the complete reality, by no means the only truth through which we must work and live, the truth, I mean, which Professor Bradley, with such splendid insight, has lately shown us to be exhibited by King Lear, that 'the judgment of this world is a lie; [that] its goods which we covet corrupt us; [that] its ills, which wreck our bodies, set our souls free'; 'the conviction that our whole attitude in asking or expecting that goodness should be prosperous is wrong; that, if only we could see things as they are, we should see that the outward is nothing, and the inward is all.'"

And of the Christian doctrine of self-renunciation to save others he writes:

"The renunciation, the self-denial, and that *daily* carrying of the cross, whereby Luke, as Wellhausen notes, changes mere martyrdom into a general way of life, are not in the Gospels urged and intended solely to save one's own soul, but also to save others. The endurance, the self-sacrifice, are not to be merely passive, but active. They are to be helpful and redemptive; through loving service and sympathy to awaken in the sinner the dormant capacity of righteousness and love.

"Lowly, active service for the benefit of the humblest is an essential feature of the synoptic religion. 'He who would be great among you, let him be your servant.' 'It is not the will of my father that one of these little ones should perish.' The teaching of the synoptics in this matter seems to cluster round those three great sayings: 'The Son of man came not to be ministered unto, but to minister;' 'I came not to call the righteous, but sinners;' 'The Son of man came to seek and to save that which was lost.'

"And here, once more, we seem to be cognizant of fresh and original teaching, which has produced fruit to be ever reckoned among the distinctive glories of Christianity. It has two aspects: first, the yearning and eager activity to save and to redeem; secondly, the special attitude of the Master toward sinners and toward sin. The rabbis and the rabbinic religion are keen on repentance, which in their eyes is second only to the law; but we do not, I think, find the same passionate eagerness to *cause* repentance, to save the lost, to redeem the sinner. The refusal to allow that any human soul is not capable of emancipation from the bondage of sin, the labor of pity and love among the outcast and the fallen, go back to the synoptic Gospels and their Hero. They were hardly known before his time. And the redemptive method which he inaugurated was new likewise. It was the method of pity and love. There is no paltering with sin; it is not made less odious; but instead of mere threats and condemnations, the chance is given for hope, admiration, and love to work their wonders within the sinner's soul. The sinner is afforded the opportunity for doing good instead of evil, and his kindly services are encouraged and praised. Jesus seems to have had a special insight into the nature of certain kinds of sin, and into the redeemable capacity of certain kinds of sinners. He perceived that there was a certain untainted humility of soul which some sins in some sinners had not yet destroyed, just as he also believed and realized that there was a certain cold, formal, negative virtue which was practically equivalent to sin, and far less capable of reformation. Overzealous scrupulosity, and the pride which, dwelling with smug satisfaction upon its own excellence, draws away the skirt from any contact with impurity, were specially repugnant to him. Whether with *this* sin and with its sinners he showed adequate patience may perhaps be doubted, but it does seem to me that his denunciation of formalism and pride, his contrasted pictures of the lowly publican and the scrupulous pharisee, were new and permanent contributions to morality and religion. As the Jewish reader meets them in the synoptic Gospels, he recognizes this new contribution; and if he is adequately open-minded, he does it homage and is grateful."

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HONOR AMONG CLERGYMEN.

IN a pastoral letter issued by the bishops of the Protestant Episcopal Church occurs the following sentence: "If one finds, whatever his office or place in the Church, that he has lost his hold upon her fundamental verities, then, in the name of common honesty, let him be silent or withdraw." This dictum, as the Rev. Algernon Sidney Crapsey points out, raises a question of honor that concerns every clergyman, of whatever denomination. Dr. Crapsey discusses this question of honor in the pages of the New York *Outlook*, and reaches a position diametrically opposed to that taken by the bishops in their pastoral letter. He argues that if a clergyman finds himself differing on important points from the Church in which he is an ordained teacher, it is his duty neither to withdraw nor to be silent. It is his duty rather, Dr. Crapsey urges, to preach the truth as he sees it, and to leave those who differ with him to determine whether the difference is so great that they are no longer willing that he should remain a recognized teacher in their fellowship. This was the method of Wesley, of Luther, of Paul, of Jesus, remarks *The Outlook*, in its editorial indorsement of Dr. Crapsey's protest. It adds: "It may sometimes be the duty of a Christian minister to submit uncomplainingly to execution; it is never his duty to perform hara-kiri."

In the sentence quoted from the bishop's letter Dr. Crapsey protests against the vagueness of the term "fundamental verities." If by these the writers meant those "basic truths of Christianity" which "have been given to us by Jesus Himself in the two great commandments of the law, in the Lord's Prayer and in the five laws of righteousness as we find them written in the Sermon on the Mount," Dr. Crapsey would take no exception to the declaration of the pastoral letter. But he is convinced, owing to "a long experience with the theological method of speech," that the fundamental verities which the letter contemplates "are not these basic truths of religion, but certain historical statements, philosophical conceptions, and theological definitions which have come down from the near or distant past and which are found in the creeds and confessions of the various Christian bodies, Catholic and Protestant." On this assumption Dr. Crapsey continues:

"If in the course of his study the clergyman finds that he can not verify the verities, if he discovers that many of the historical statements of the creeds and formularies of his Church are without the support of historical evidence; if it is evident that the myth, legend, and allegory of the ancient Hebrew and primitive Christian have been turned into plain matter of fact by a later and uninspired generation; if, moreover, many of the philosophical conceptions of the creed seem to the clergyman nothing more than the speculations of men ignorant of the facts of the universe and untrained in the art of reasoning; and if, finally, the theological definitions outrage the intelligence and shock the conscience of the clergyman—then, with history and reason and conscience all protesting, what is the poor man to do?"

The bishops say, keep silent or withdraw. Of the first of these alternatives Dr. Crapsey writes:

"In his eagerness to keep his hold upon the crumbling dogma, a man violates every rule of evidence and every canon of reason, and finally succeeds in silencing doubts and confirming himself in his old way of thinking and believing. And, verily, such a man has his reward. He finds himself registered among the safe men to whom are entrusted the higher offices of the Church.

"But the price which he pays for his safety is the arrest of mental and spiritual development. He becomes from that time not a thinker but a special pleader, and he spends his intellectual force not in seeking for truths, but in searching for plausible argument. Such a man may, and often does, succeed in convincing himself, but he can not convince others. His vehemence is a sign of fear, and the unsoundness of his reasoning betrays the instability of his belief. . . . . .

"But there is another class of men, who, while they do not violently strangle their new-born convictions, artfully conceal them. In the sanctity of the study and in the confidence of friendship they will give free expression to opinions and beliefs which they are careful not to speak of openly. . . . While such a withholding of the truth may sometimes be necessary, no one can claim that it is other than a necessary evil, the continuance of which must lead to disaster. There is an explosive force in conviction which can not be restrained indefinitely; sooner or later the explosion comes and then there is an end to silence. The man who breaks the silence can not help himself. He is the sacrificial victim of truth."

Of the other alternative, that of withdrawal, Dr. Crapsey says:

"But withdrawal is not so easy a matter as it seems. A clergyman belongs to his Church; it is his spiritual city. He has lived in it all his life and he loves it. . . . To withdraw is to separate himself from lifelong associations; to break completely with his own past, than which there can be no greater disaster in a human life. Such disasters may sometimes be necessary, but they should be the sad, last necessity of a hopeless condition. As long as a minister can, he should stay where he is. For where he is is where he ought to be. It is the providence of God, the logic of events, that has given him his position, and until he is dislodged it is his duty to stay there. It may be the very salvation of the Church for him to stand fast."

"Had Jesus followed the advice of the pastoral letter of the bishops of the Episcopal Church, and, when he discovered errors in the prevailing creed of his people, had quietly withdrawn and gone to the Gentiles, he would have saved the priesthood of Jerusalem the trouble of condemning him, he would have saved his own earthly life, but he would not have saved the world.

"And the law which guided Jesus is the law which guides the spiritual and intellectual progress of the world. In order to be effective the prophet must prophesy against the errors and evils of his own time, church, and country."

Thus, for any "true, brave-hearted man" in the situation indicated, "silence is impossible and withdrawal treasonable." The treasonableness of withdrawal is expounded in the following statements:

"The clergyman is sent to teach the church, and he is recreant to his high office if, for prudential reasons, he fails to teach just when teaching is necessary. The Church as an organized body has no teaching power. It never has had, it never can have. Teachers are sent from God; they are the wise men, the scribes, and the prophets whom God sends to the church for the edification of the Church. These men derive their authority, not from the Church, but directly from God. They are the sources of truth to the Church, and all that the Church can do or ever has done is to sum up the words of the prophets and teachers for the more convenient use of the people. Such summings-up are of necessity partial and incomplete, and must of the same necessity be reinterpreted and reinformed by living voices of living prophets. To assert the finality of creeds is to deny the prophetic office to the Church, and a Church without prophets is a church without life, for prophecy is the very life of the people of God."

On Laughing in Church.—Dr. James M. Buckley, editor of the New York *Christian Advocate*, and one of the most influential men in the Methodist Church, aroused a good deal of interest and some dissent lately by an address in which he stated, according to the newspaper reports, that "a clergyman has no right to make his congregation laugh, and to do so is irreverence." We quote some lay comment called forth by this statement. The Chicago *Tribune* remarks:

"It is not recorded that the laughter which was occasionally provoked by the remarks of Peter Cartwright or Henry Ward Beecher did any harm to the cause of religion or justly exposed either preacher to the charge of irreverence. The only effect of the mirth-provoking remarks was to rivet the attention of those who sat under them."

From the Chicago *Chronicle*, which discusses the matter editorially, we quote in part as follows:

"The Christian religion is essentially a solemn religion. So far as we know, Christ never laughed. He is known to have wept and he is known to have been laughed at, but we have no reason to think he ever laughed. There is no proof that any of the apostles

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or early Christians ever laughed, tho it is certain that several of them wept.

"If any one will consult a concordance of the Scriptures he will be surprised to see how little is said about laughter. In England a religious person is called a 'serious person,' and an English infidel once described Christianity as 'the cultivation of sorrow.' Laughter, then, must have a very small place in such a religion.

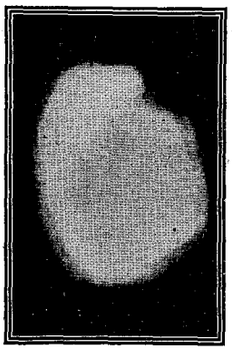

FIG. 1.

"On the other hand, what Dr. Buckley actually said, that a clergyman has no right to make his congregation laugh, and for him to do so is irreverence, is neither true nor philosophical. Paradoxical as it may seem, tears and laughter are companions. Every rhetorician knows that a public speaker who is famous for producing tears is equally famous for producing laughter. . . . . .

"It is also to be observed that there are laughs which are distinctly religious and devout. There have always been new converts who gave vent to their unspeakable joy in peals of laughter. The most intensely religious and devout congregations in the Christian world are sometimes moved to laughter by something particularly sublime and sweet in a Christian experience, by some wonderful and apposite providence, or by some felicitous scriptural quotation. It is really no uncommon thing for a pious congregation not only to laugh, but to manifest its piety by laughter."

THE THEOSOPHICAL THEORY OF THOUGHT-FORMS.

IT may interest many of our readers to learn, on the authority of Mrs. Annie Besant and of Mr. C. W. Leadbeater, leaders of the theosophical cult, that not only do theosophists believe that "each definite thought produces a double effect—a radiating vibration and a floating form," but that the initiated claim ability actually to see these thought-forms and to perceive definitely their shape and color. Mrs. Besant and Mr. Leadbeater do not ask us to be content with this mere generalization, but they put before us, in a recent volume called "Thought-Forms," a number of colored diagrams depicting certain thoughts as they see them. They assure us, moreover, that any one else "whose education has made him sensitive to appearances of the astral plane" may enjoy the same visual experience. Seeking further information about the "thought-form," we learn that it is compared to a Leyden jar, "the coating of living essence being symbolized by the jar, and the thought-energy by the charge of electricity." If a man's thought or feeling is directly connected with some one else, they inform us, the resultant thought-form moves toward that person and discharges itself upon his astral and mental bodies. If a man's thought is about himself, or is based upon a personal feeling, as the vast majority of thoughts are, "it hovers round its creator and is always ready to react upon him whenever he is for a moment in a passive condition." If the thought-form be neither definitely personal nor specially aimed at some one else, "it simply floats detached in the atmosphere, all the time radiating vibrations similar to those originally sent forth by its creator." The three general principles underlying the production of all thought-forms, according to the authors, are these: "Quality of thought determines color. Nature of thought determines form. Definiteness of thought determines clearness of outline." Of the colors which characterize religious thought-forms we read:

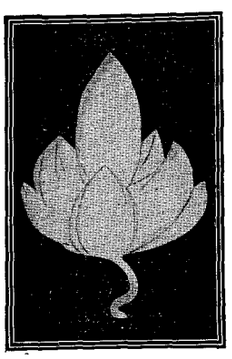

FIG. 3.

"The different shades of blue all indicate religious feeling, and range through all hues from the dark brown-blue of selfish devotion or the pallid gray-blue of fetish worship tinged with fear, up to the rich deep clear color of heartfelt adoration, and the beautiful pale azure of that highest form which implies self-renunciation and union with the divine; the devotional thought of an unselfish heart is very lovely in color, like the deep blue of a summer sky.

As to the forms and their peculiar significance the accompanying figures, aided by the text, will give an idea of what the theosophists mean, tho the color, which in all four cases is blue of varying intensities, can not here be reproduced. To quote:

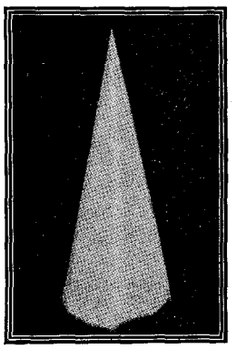

FIG. 2.

"Fig. 1 shows us a shapeless rolling cloud. . . . It betokens that vaguely pleasurable religious feeling—a sensation of devoutness rather than of devotion—which is so common among those in whom piety is more developed than intellect. In many a church one may see a great cloud of deep dull blue floating over the heads of the congregation—indefinite in outline, because of the indistinct nature of the thoughts and feelings which cause it; flecked too often with brown and gray, because ignorant devotion absorbs with deplorable facility the dismal tincture of selfishness or fear, but none the less adumbrating a mighty potentiality of the future, manifesting to our eyes the first faint flutter of one at least of the twin wings of devotion and wisdom, by the use of which the soul flies upward to God from whom it came."

Fig. 2 symbolizes the upward rush of devotion. Thus:

"We could hardly have a more marked contrast than that between the inchoate flaccidity of the nebulosity of Fig. 1 and the virile vigor of the splendid spire of highly developed devotion which leaps into being before us in Fig. 2. This is no uncertain half-formed sentiment; it is the outrush into manifestation of a grand emotion rooted deep in the knowledge of fact. The man who feels such devotion as this is one who knows in whom he has believed; the man who makes such a thought-form as this is one who has taught himself how to think. The determination of the upward rush points to courage as well as conviction, while the sharpness of its outline shows the clarity of its creator's conception, and the peerless purity of its color bears witness to his utter unselfishness."

Fig. 3 symbolizes self-renunciation. According to the authors:

"Fig. 3 gives us yet another form of devotion, producing an exquisitely beautiful form of a type quite new to us—a type in which one might at first sight suppose that various graceful shapes belonging to animate nature were being imitated. Fig. 3, for example, is somewhat suggestive of a partially opened flower-bud, while other forms are found to bear a certain resemblance to shells or leaves or tree-shapes. Manifestly, however, these are not and can not be copies of animal or vegetable forms, and it seems probable that the explanation of the similarity lies very much deeper than that. An analogous and even more significant fact is that some very complex thought-forms can be exactly imitated by the action of certain mechanical forces. . . . While with our present knowledge it would be unwise to attempt a solution of the very fascinating problem presented by these remarkable resemblances, it seems likely that we are obtaining a glimpse across the threshold of a very mighty mystery, for if by certain thoughts we produce a form which has been duplicated by the processes of nature, we have at least a presumption that these forces of nature work along lines somewhat similar to the action of those thoughts. Since the universe is itself a mighty thought-form called into existence by the Logos, it may well be that tiny parts of it are also the thought-forms of minor entities engaged in the same work; and thus perhaps we may approach a comprehension of what is meant by the three hundred and thirty million devas of the Hindus.

"This form is of the loveliest pale azure, with a glory of white light shining through it. . . . It is what a Catholic would call a definite 'act of devotion.'"

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FOREIGN COMMENT.

RUSSIAN DIPLOMACY.

PERHAPS one of the most interesting features in the recent Peace Conference at Portsmouth has been the side-light which it has cast upon the national character of the Japanese and Russian diplomats who were engaged in a battle which should prove even more decisive than Mukden or the Sea of Japan. The Japanese plenipotentiaries were, in the language of a German paper, "solemn, silent, and serious." The Russians were voluble and excited. Mr. Witte, at the close of the negotiations, is represented in the press as openly expressing his self-satisfaction, and even as boasting of a diplomatic victory. To a representative of the *Slovo* (St. Petersburg) he said:

"You see what one gains by standing firm. I was in a frightful position. I had not the right to accept a compromise, and a rupture seemed likely to enlist the sympathies of all on the side of Japan. Mr. Roosevelt appealed to my patriotism, humanity, and good sense. Fortunately, I succeeded in holding out to the end. The Japanese could not read in my face what was passing in my heart. From the outset I assumed such an indifferent tone that it eventually carried conviction. When the Japanese presented their written conditions I laid the latter aside without looking at them and spoke of something else. On leaving the room I intentionally forgot the conditions lying on the table. When one of the Japanese plenipotentiaries drew my attention to this, asking if I did not wish to take away secret documents which some one might read, I put the papers carelessly into my pocket. It was thus to the last minute of the negotiations."

One London daily represents Mr. Witte's conduct in the negotiations as a long series of "bluffs," and the London *Standard* declares:

"Hardly any responsible writer treats with seriousness or sympathy M. Witte's delight at what he mistakes for a glorious victory. If the statement which he is reported to have made to a correspondent of one of the radical papers is not a fabrication, the weakness of the Czar's plenipotentiary can not be attributed to a disingenuous disposition. He is represented as claiming admiration for affecting, throughout all his dealings with his Japanese colleagues at the council-chamber, stolid indifference and even disdainful forgetfulness of their proposals. If this be the new type of diplomacy, men of honor will decidedly prefer the old."

In a similar tone the London *Times* speaks as follows:

"The Russian people are not under any illusion as to the real character of the peace. They are not blinded by the remission of the war indemnity, which is paraded in Portsmouth as a great diplomatic victory. M. Witte, according to messages from American sources, is said to have proclaimed himself to be the conqueror. A correspondent . . . pertinently asks in what particulars the Russian plenipotenitary has exhibited the high degree of statesmanship on which the American reporters are congratulating him? He almost wrecked the negotiations. He would have wrecked them altogether, had it not been for the magnanimity and the real statesmanship of the Mikado."

He is accused by all the London papers with being too communicative and even with betraying to reporters the sacred secrets of the conference in an attempt at playing to the galleries From this accusation Mr. Brunetière absolves him (in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*) and says:

"Certain journals have accused him of having talked too much, of pandering to the curiosity of the reporters, of showing himself incapable of keeping up the silence and mystery proper to a diplomat. But he published no secret of importance and never at any time uttered a word that would imperil the success of the negotiations."

The *Neue Freie Presse* (Vienna) claims a real victory for Mr. Witte, and says:

"The victory which the Russian generals failed to carry off has been won by Russian diplomacy, which showed itself at the table of the conference more fortunate than armies in the field or fleets on the sea. Victorious Japan has surrendered."

The *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* (Berlin) acknowledges that the Japanese diplomats made this surrender, but adds "and it does honor to their wisdom." According to the *Vossische Zeitung* (Berlin) this palpable victory of Witte is likely to appease the anger of the Russian people toward the Government, and Witte's boast of a diplomatic triumph is justified by the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, which expresses surprise at Japan's backdown, which renders her successes in the war no more than a Pyrrhic victory. On the other hand the *Frankfurter Zeitung* declares: "The Japanese in their war with Russia have gained a series of brilliant victories, but their greatest victory of all has been

UNCLE SAM AS A SNAKE-CHARMER.

—*Fischietto* (Turin).

RETICENCE A LA RUSSE.

AMERICAN NEWSPAPER MAN—"See here, I can't get any information next door. Can *you* talk?"

MR. WITTE—"Alas! My lips are sealed. But—I may tell you in strictest confidence that the justice of the case is entirely on our side. Here are the facts."

—*Punch* (London).

DIPLOMATIC EXIGENCIES.

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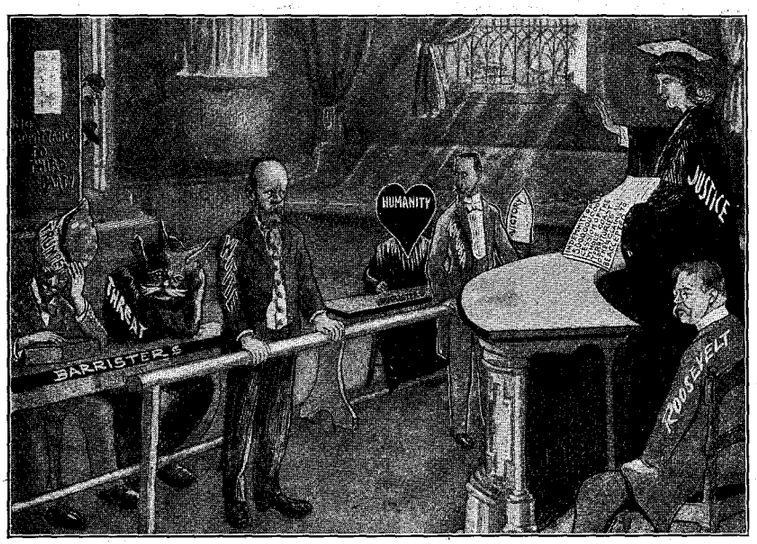
that carried off at Portsmouth, for there they show themselves capable of self-conquest." The same compliment in almost the same words is paid the Japanese diplomats by Mr. Ferdinand Brunetière in the review quoted above. The *St. Petersburger Zeitung*, the organ of the German embassy, thinks that Japan ought to be satisfied with the prospect of a treaty which will usher in a permanent peace, while *Vorwärts* (Berlin), the Socialist organ, says that "the effect of the peace negotiations will prove as glorious to Japan as they are subversive of the Czar's plans of Russian preeminence in East Asia." Japan's statesmen, thinks the *Fremdenblatt* (Vienna), have shown themselves as successful at Portsmouth as her fighting men did in Manchuria and the Straits of Korea. But *The Saturday Review* (London) remarks with cold-blooded but felicitous cynicism:

"It is not only bad international manners, but the silliest twaddle, to talk of Japan's 'great renunciation' and of M. Witte's 'triumph,' when it is evident to all men that no peace was ever made which more faithfully registered the exact degree of success attained by the victorious party up to the time of its conclusion or more exactly measured the resisting force still existing in the defeated side."



THE JUDGMENT OF JUSTICE.
A Japanese View. —*The Tokyo Puck.*

The Spectator enumerates all the territorial and other gains of Japan and concludes: "M. Witte may exult in his hardly decent fashion at what he considers his victory; but it is Japan, not Russia, who has achieved a triumph, consolidated rather than limited by the terms of a peace signed before St. Petersburg has recorded a single victory either by sea or land."

Naturally enough, the French press extol the skill of Witte, and praise the wisdom with which the Czar has put an end to a disastrous war. There is only one exception in this laudatory verdict of the papers, and that is the utterance of a French Academician in the important review of which he is editor. Ferdinand Brunetière, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, already quoted, a magazine of the greatest weight and authority in Europe, declares that "every single thing which was at stake in the war remains in the hands of Japan," and expresses astonishment that Russia should make the paying of the indemnity a question of "honor." The Paris *Figaro* thinks the Czar showed "great wisdom in his perception of the necessity for ending the game," a compliment that must apply with even greater force to the "wisdom" of the thousands who perceived the necessity long before the Czar did. The *Gaulois* (Paris) calls the sudden surrender of Japan a *coup de théâtre*, and says the incident constitutes a remarkable diplomatic victory for Russia and especially for Mr. Witte, to whom the Russians, declares the *Journal des Débats*, ought to do honor for safeguarding their interests in so masterly a way. According to the *Tribuna* (Rome) the result of the conference marks "Japan's latest victory" over Russia, and the writer hazards the conjecture that in their sudden ending of the war the Japanese diplomats were acting under the inspiration of Machiavelli.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

REVOLUTIONARY RESULTS OF VICTORY UPON JAPAN.

THE riots in Japan give point to a remarkable article in the *Européen* (Paris) by the editor of the Tokyo *Mainichi Shimbun*. This editor, who is a deputy in the Japanese Parliament, declares that the war has inspired his people with the spirit of democracy. He says that for the first time in their history the Japanese have found themselves and recognized their responsibilities as a nation, and adds that the idea of equality among men has superseded that of aristocratic exclusiveness and plebeian submission. Every man, rich or poor, feels himself on the same footing in the eyes of the nation.

He goes on to draw a parallel between Japan and England. After England's great struggle with France, which ended with the battle of Waterloo, the spirit of reform, the sense of personal responsibility, was evoked in Great Britain. So in Japan the personal patriotism of the Mikado's subjects has been proved and exhibited at Mukden and Liau-Yang, and, after those victories, and the arrival of peace, will survive in a new feeling of political and civic independence. To the success of Japanese arms, he says, every person in the country, young or old, contributed by his self-sacrifice. To quote:

"This people, which has sacrificed its money, to the extent of selling personal clothing for the benefit of the national war fund, and which has given generously the life-blood of its children, occupies no privileged position in the State and enjoys no pension as the nobles do. Without denying the ability and devotion of the military leaders, it must be allowed that but for the heroic spirit displayed by the rank and file success in any great degree would have been impossible."

The writer proceeds to show that war has filled the mind of the Japanese with a sense of democratic equality. Those who fought for peace and independence must enjoy the fruits of it. As in England the continental victories of Wellington paved the way for the reforms of 1832, so Japan expects that the extension of political privileges will result from the victories gained in Manchuria. He proposes, accordingly, something like universal suffrage in Japan. In his own words:

"It is ill advised, or rather unreasonable, to tell those who have devoted themselves to the service of their country, and are conspicuous for their loyalty, that because they do not pay high taxes they therefore have no right of interference in the affairs of the nation. By extending the franchise on a large scale such deputies will have a chance of being elected as really represent the claims of the people, and are more interested in relieving social distress than in projects of fresh taxation. In this way the distance between rich and poor will be lessened and popular discontent kept in check."

He talks of military life as being actually a school of democracy and hints at a danger which threatens the State unless "the governing class give their best consideration to the present tendency of thought in the nation." He argues as follows:

"In spite of this equalizing tendency, the distance between rich and poor in Japan must inevitably increase. The growth of

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expenditure on administration and on repayment of loans and other legacies of the war, together with the rise in prices, will widen the breach between the masses and their rulers, and altho the growth of capital will enlarge the sphere of financial operations, the money will find its way to the rich, rather than to the poor. Such is the change that will come with peace. While general public opinion tends toward equality, the financial situation will tend to create a social abyss."

The result of the war, in short, has been to set Japan upon her feet, and to teach the people their rights and their power. Unless this situation is faced and provided for, this writer predicts "a terrible explosion."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

TOLSTOY IN HIS STUDY.
From a painting by Julius Norden.

TOLSTOY ON THE SIN OF HOLDING OFFICE.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT is classed with Nicholas, Wilhelm, and Chamberlain as "most immoral men" in Count Tolstoy's latest essay on the wickedness of governments. And not only are these rulers thus judged by the professed imitator of the One who said "Judge not," but "their supporters and parliaments" are put under the same condemnation. No moral man can be a legislator, says Tolstoy—a remark that may or may not be intended as a reflection on the new Russian "douma." Anarchy and individualism, as opposed to collectivism, socialism, or imperialism, appears to be the latest phase of opinion adopted by the earnest and eloquent Russian count, who has done so much to wake the conscience of Russia, and indeed of the whole civilized world. The idea of government, a controlling and directing authority in a country, he denounces in the London *Times* as abominable. The Russo-Japanese war, he says, with all its horrors, resulted from the existence of a government in Russia. After enumerating and stigmatizing several of the bad rulers of the Muscovite empire he goes on to speak of Nicholas II. thus:

"To-day heredity has tossed up on to the throne a weak-minded hussar officer, and he, with his hangers-on, undertakes his Manchuro-Korean scheme, costing hundreds of thousands of lives and millions of rubles.

"Why, this is dreadful! Dreadful chiefly because, even if this insane war were to terminate to-morrow, a new fancy may, by help of scoundrels who surround him, jump into the weak head of this man in power, who may to-morrow undertake a new African, American, or Indian scheme, and these will again drain the last strength out of the Russian people and send them to the other end of the world to commit murder.

"This is what has happened and is happening, not in Russia alone, but in every place where there has existed or is existing a government—*i.e.*, an organization in which a small minority can force a great majority to do its will. The whole history of European States is the history of mad, stupid, dissolute men succeeding each other on their thrones, killing, ruining, and, worst of all, corrupting their people.

"The throne in England is mounted by an unconscientious, cruel scoundrel and rake, Henry VIII., and, that he may get rid of his wife and marry his concubine, he invents his pseudo-Christian Protestant Church, he forces the whole people to accept his invented faith, and millions of men are destroyed in the struggle for and against it.

"The greatest hypocrite and villain, Cromwell, takes possession of the machine, and executes another similar hypocrite, Charles I., and relentlessly ruins scores of thousands of lives and destroys the very faith for which he pretends to strive."

He makes no distinction between forms of government. All are equally wicked and unjust. The history of nations is nothing but a record, he says, of the iniquity of governments. To quote:

"Read or recall to mind the history of the European Christian nations from the time of the Reformation. It is an uninterrupted enumeration of the most dreadful, senselessly cruel crimes committed by representatives of the Government against their own and other nations and against each other; incessant wars, plunders, the destruction or the oppression of nationalities, the extermination of whole peoples, the ruin of peaceful populations for the sake of rapacity, vanity, jealousy; or, under pretense of the establishment of religious truth, a continuous succession of stakes at which, among thousands of average men, were also burnt the best men of their time; treacheries, fraud, trickery, seizure of other people's property, tortures, prisons, executions, and vice, that dreadful unnatural vice which is met only among these unfortunate rulers. And this is the case not only with a Charles IX., a Henry VIII., an Ivan the Terrible, but the extolled Louises of France, Elizabeths of England, Catherines and Peters of Russia, and Fredericks of Prussia—they all do only this. Our contemporary governments—*i.e.*, the men who at present compose governments (whether these governments be autocratic or limited monarchies or republics)—do the same thing; they can not but do it because in it consists their function."

He ranks even American presidents, and names Mr. Roosevelt, among those who grasp by violence the wealth of the laboring classes, and he says of all rulers and statesmen whether elected by the people, or succeeding to a throne as despotic emperors or heirs to the crown of a limited monarchy:

"Their function consists in grasping the greater part of the property of the laboring classes, by means of violence in the form of direct or indirect taxation, and of using these means according to their discretion—*i.e.*, always for the attainment of party or their own personal avaricious ambitions and vain aims. Secondly, in maintaining by violence the right of a few men to possess the land taken from the whole nation. Thirdly, to organize by hire or conscription an army—*i.e.*, professional murderers—and at their will to send these murderers to kill and rob this people or that. Or, lastly, to institute laws which would justify and consecrate all these villainies. This is precisely what is being done by present-day Roosevelts, Nicholases the Second, Chamberlains, and Wilhelms, with their supporters and parliaments. In this consists their function. And this function can be accomplished only by the most immoral men. One need only carefully examine the essence of that in which the exercise of governmental power consists in order to understand that those men who rule nations must be cruel, immoral, and necessarily standing lower than the average moral level of their time and society. No moral man, nor even an incompletely immoral person, can be on the throne or be a minister or legislator, the determiner and definer of the fate of nations. A moral, virtuous statesman is as great an inward contradiction as a moral prostitute, an abstemious drunkard, or a meek brigand."

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BOYCOTTING THE NEW "DOUMA" IN RUSSIA.

ADVANCED liberals, to say nothing of the revolutionary parties, are profoundly dissatisfied with "the Bouliguin douma," as they contemptuously call the popular assembly created by the Czar (considered in our issue for August 26, page 268). They denounce it, as readers are aware from press despatches, because of its unrepresentative character, its limited and purely advisory powers, and its lack of autonomy. They complain that the property qualification for voters at the douma elections is too high, so high as to disfranchise all city workmen and the majority of the professional and "intellectual" elements—teachers, lawyers, journalists, writers, physicians, and so on. They aver that even the peasants will not be properly represented, owing to the indirect method of election and the influence of the bureaucracy. But the question has arisen and been actively discussed, What is to be done? Shall the disappointed liberals, the constitutionalists, who expected a genuine and potent assembly elected by a wide, democratic suffrage, accept the douma as an earnest, a step forward, or shall they scornfully repudiate it—boycott it, in short?

A boycott of the douma and the elections for members thereof has been strongly advocated in private circles and illegal publications. The reviews and newspapers have discussed the proposed boycott, but from a negative point of view. The leading liberal magazine, the *Viestnik Europy*, which frankly describes itself as "moderate" or "centrist," deplores the boycott agitation while freely criticizing the douma scheme as it stands. To quote:

"The prevalence of such a view of our duty in large circles of intelligent men would be a great misfortune for Russia. There is evidence on every page of the political history of Western Europe that the recognition of the imperfections of an electoral system is entirely compatible with participation and cooperation in a national assembly founded on such a defective system. It is sufficient to refer to the French Chamber of Deputies of the days of Louis Philippe, in which, undemocratic as it was, there sat Garnier-Pages and Ledru-Rollin. It is equally certain that in an assembly which represents the minority rather than the majority, splendid, manly, determined warfare in behalf of right and justice may be carried on—an illustration is afforded by the conflict between Bismarck and the German Reichstag. In Russia something similar has been witnessed: mutilated and crippled as our zemstvo institutions have been since 1890, the best of the zemstvo workers have not held themselves aloof from these activities, and thanks to this they have been able to play so conspicuous a part in the events of the recent past."

This review, accordingly, urges all practical reformers to take part in the elections, send as many progressives to the douma as the conditions may permit, and continue the fight for better things from the new position.

The *Novoye Vremya* sneers at the boycott advocates, and says that they really fear the exposure of their own impotence and insignificance. They could not get themselves elected if they would, it adds, and their "absenteeism" is a case of sour grapes. The *Osvobojdenie*, the "illegal" organ of the constitutionalists, published at Paris, considers at length the pros and cons of the boycott proposition and concludes that, while the extreme and revolutionary parties are logical and consistent in the position they have assumed, since they prefer to continue the war on the autocracy from the outside, it would be a grave political error from the broader view of future national progress. The essential thing is union among the anti-autocratic and reform parties, and to oppose all compromise is to imperil the whole cause of Russian progress. Russia has already suffered greatly from the idealism and plumb-line-ism of her reformers, and to boycott the douma now is to sacrifice the advantage of far more favorable political conditions than the zemstvoists have enjoyed in the past.

The executive committee of the zemstvo congress, at a Moscow meeting, has adopted a resolution against the douma boycott and recommended vigorous participation in the elections.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

GERMAN OBJECTIONS TO THE CZAR'S POLISH REFORMS.

IF the diplomats of the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, thought they had settled the Polish question by their final distribution of the kingdom, they might learn better from the European comments of to-day on the disturbances caused in the cabinets of kings by this nation that was supposedly legislated out of existence so long ago. At the present moment, according to the *Slowo Polskie* (of Leopol, Austrian Poland), the Polish question is likely to cause friction between Russia and Germany. Concessions made by Russia to her Polish population rouse the restless Polish population of Germany, and *vice versa*. An insurrection in any one of the sections of dismembered Poland would result in a revolt in either or both of the two others. Hence the present jealousy and uneasiness with which Germany and Russia are eying each other. To quote:

"Judging by the voices of the semiofficial press, pressure has been exerted by Germany on the Russian Government in order that the latter should not make any grave concessions to the Poles. A Polish aristocrat that has relations in Russian court circles was explicitly told that the resolutions of the Committee of Ministers [in the matter of Polish reforms] will not satisfy the Poles, but considerations of foreign policy did not allow the Government to make more advanced concessions. It is clear that these 'considerations of foreign policy' signify a regard for the relation of Russia to Germany."

Indeed, the German semiofficial press describe quite distinctly the attitude of the German Government in the matter of the concessions for the Poles under Russian rule. Here is what the *Gegenwart*, the organ of the Alliance of Agriculturists, which is called Germany's "collateral government," writes of this subject:

"The new course in Russia's internal policy obliges Germany to raise her voice against the liberal tendency in Russia, especially in relation to the Poles, and this, because the traditional attitude of our government and of the Russian Government toward their Polish subjects indicates the degree of heat or cold in their mutual relation. In Berlin and in St. Petersburg there has become fixed the conviction, which belongs to the political axioms, that whoever moves the Polish card stirs the Russo-German relation; whenever the mercury rises on the Polish-Russian or on the Polish-German thermometer, it surely falls on the Russo-German thermometer.

"So has it always been, and so will it always be. Hence, we judge that our government has not neglected to caution whomsoever it is necessary in St. Petersburg, that the Russian internal policy may be dangerous to German interests. . . .

"We can reconcile ourselves to the admission of the Poles to government service; to their being granted permission to possess land, especially if that privilege shall be circumscribed by certain reservations; finally, we agree to the introduction of the Polish language as the language of instruction in the teaching of religion and Polish literature. But if the schools should, in general, be Polonized, and if special political arrangements for the Poles should be introduced, that would be a very serious event, upon which our statesmen would have to meditate deeply, as such a reform would represent an exceedingly precipitous path leading to dangerous doubts as to how Russia intends in future to handle the Polish card."

Altho Russia's hearkening to Germany's counsel would disable Russia for a long time in European politics, it would not be surprising if she followed the voice of the German inspired organs, says a Polish comment on the *Gegenwart* article, for both the Czar's Government and the anarchy which is running riot in Russia have long been working unwittingly "*pour le roi de Prusse.*"—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE construction of the new class of battle-ships, says *The Daily News* (London), decided upon by the German Government as a result of the lessons of the Russo-Japanese War, will be begun next year. The main object of the increase in size is to allow of the vessels carrying heavier guns, it being expected that the new ships will be provided with 30-centimetre instead of 28-centimetre weapons, the heaviest now carried on German war-ships.

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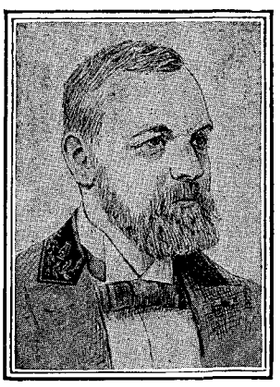
NOTABLE BOOKS OF THE DAY.

SCIENCE'S LATEST MARTYRDOM.

ANTARCTICA; OR, TWO YEARS AMONGST THE ICE OF THE SOUTH POLE. By Dr. Otto G. Nordenskjöld and Dr. Johan Gunnar Andersson. Illustrated, with Maps and Index. Cloth, pp. xviii, 608. Price, $5.00. Hurst & Blackett, Limited, London. The Macmillan Company, New York.

THE scientific material collected by the ill-fated Swedish Antarctic expedition of 1901–1904 is being examined at the cost of the Swedish Government. Dr. Nordenskjöld wrote at once on his return an outline of the expedition's experience to the London *Times;* later, one to the *Deutsche Revue;* also a short sketch to the *Independent*, this year. This is the English form of the full popular account.

The *Antarctic*, it will be remembered, after cruising a month in the seas south of the South Shetland Islands, landed Dr. Nordenskjöld with a party of five on "Snow Hill Island," south of Haddington Land, to winter there. They erected their house and observatories, and began scientific work. The steamer then brought the rest of the scientists back to the waters between Tierra del Fuego and South Georgia Island, where, under Dr. Andersson, they made scientific investigations. The intention was in the spring to take off Dr. Nordenskjöld; the best possible use was to be made of the Antarctic summer of 1902–1903; and in May, 1903, they were all to be back in Sweden.



OTTO G. NORDENSKJÖLD.

But when the *Antarctic* turned southward for Dr. Nordenskjöld, the pack-ice prevented her from reaching him. Dr. Andersson, with two companions, left her at "Hope Bay," meaning to try to reach Nordenskjöld by sledge. They failed, however, and were forced to return to the bay and winter in an improvised stone-hut. Poorly equipped, they suffered great hardship. The *Antarctic*, nipped in the ice, sank south of the eastern extremity of Joinville Island, carrying down collections, notes, etc. Her twenty souls, after drifting about on the ice for sixteen days, landed on Paulet Island, where they led a wretched existence for nine months. One of the sailors died and was buried there.

Here lay the two relief parties during a second winter, each ignorant of the fate of, and unable to communicate with, the other, and both equally unacquainted with Nordenskjöld's condition and barred from reaching him. Yet so near to each other were the three parties that from his island's heights Nordenskjöld could see the locality of both Andersson's and Captain Larsen's station, without, however, any of his little band's suspecting their friends' comparative nearness. Finally, Andersson and Nordenskjöld met on a sledge-trip. Soon afterward Larsen and five others set out in a whale-boat from Paulet Island and found Nordenskjöld, on the very day that he had been reached by the officers of a warship sent out for the expedition's relief by the Argentine Republic. Part I. gives the story of Dr. Nordenskjöld's party, and is written by him; Part II. tells the experiences of the two relief parties, and is written mostly by Dr. Andersson, the botanist of the expedition, and Captain Larsen.

To the general reader, the book's main interest will lie in what gave Kane's and Livingstone's and Stanley's writings their charm—its story of romantic adventure. It is as fascinating reading as Robinson Crusoe. Antarctic scenery and natural phenomena are vividly portrayed. There is abundant detail that makes the pictures clear and complete without tiring. And the ample maps and the numerous illustrations from photographs (there are a few reproductions in color from paintings by F. W. Stokes, the American Polar artist, who was with the party for a time), added to the graphic text, bring the romantic happenings so clearly before the reader that he feels himself actually going through them.

The expedition made the first comprehensive researches in the seas and lands south of South America and the Atlantic—"the land of greatest mystery the earth now owns." It has reconstructed the map, between longitude 55° and 64° W., of the southernmost land man knows. It discovered the first fossil on South Georgia Island, and further south fossils (animal and plant) that form a foundation, Dr. Nordenskjöld thinks, on which will eventually be built a knowledge of the main Antarctic geological features from the Jurassic period to our own time. It made geological, botanical, and zoological collections, and astronomical, meteorological, hydrographical, and magnetic observations, extending over two years (in collaboration with the English and German expeditions working simultaneously respectively in Victoria Land and Emperor William Land), also bacteriological investigations, the exact value of the whole of which remains to be announced. The Antarctic region it found to be practically uninhabitable—in summer as cold as the Swedish winter, and in winter still colder, with terrific, protracted hurricanes. The expedition did not either winter or penetrate as far south as either the English or the German one.

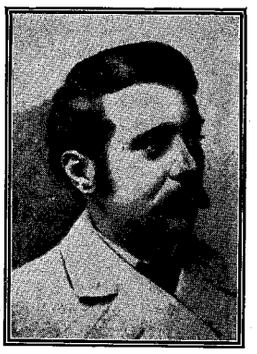
ANOTHER DREAM OF MAN'S BEST ESTATE.

A MODERN UTOPIA. By H. G. Wells. Cloth, 393 pp. Price, $1.50 net. Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. WELLS meant this work as a very serious one. Many readers of it will find its perusal trying, and will fail to realize, as proper compensation for the task of reading the same, whatever grist it offers for the mind. It would have been far better had Mr. Wells maintained throughout, both in the form and manner of his book, as well as in his attitude toward it, an unmodified seriousness. "A Modern Utopia" is the third book from him to deal with sociological and kindred topics. In a note to the reader Mr. Wells admits that he wrote the first of them, "Anticipations," in order to "clear up the muddle" in his own mind anent the subjects he therein treated. That did not accomplish the classifying process desired, so he wrote "Mankind in the Making." This he regards as "even less satisfactory, from a literary standpoint, than the former," but it was an improvement as far as his own instruction was concerned. In fact, he achieved "a certain personal certitude upon which I feel I shall go for the rest of my days." In this third book he deals with some issues left over or opened up by the others, and seeks to embody "the general picture of a Utopia . . . at once possible and more desirable than the world in which I live." He says he has written into it "the heretical metaphysical scepticism upon which all my thinking rests."

Since Mr. Wells has so successfully taken his "cure," and promises to abandon the style of work which wrought it, one might congratulate him and let it go at that. This, however, would be human and friendly, rather than critical. Certainly, Mr. Wells, in his button-holing of the reader by his foreword, suggests, by his apologetic deprecation and forestalling, not as much confidence in his work as in the result upon him, and, candidly, the work appears to warrant it! Not that the otherness of his Utopia is too bizarre, too foundationless, or not sufficiently ameliorative. But it is not Utopian enough. It is municipally very proper, clear, and reasonable, rather than alluring. It is a panacea, perhaps, for Mr. Wells's laboring mind, but not a potent lure for other mentalists with a keener demand for Happiness with a large H.

There is a wobbly bit of romance, and a thankful skein of narrative which only irritate and distract the reader. Mr. Wells places his Utopia on the extreme verge of space, and then (as antidote to nostalgia?) finds it so like Switzerland and London, tho "improved," that the visible difference is not perceptible. "It would be indefinable, a change in the quality of their grouping, a change in the quality of their remote small shapes." This is not the Utopia of the human dreamer, who would fain have a palpable touch of Paradise in his.



H. G. WELLS.

Another unhappy "property" Mr. Wells employs is a wretched botanist who has had an unfortunate love-affair, for which Utopian wanderings are not even a distraction. He is a tiresome little creature. So that Mr. Wells's attempt to sugar-coat his pill of sociological ideality only makes it more bitter. His Utopia suggests a "Bank Holiday" with the nicest kind of self-made men consciously ruminating on their delectation.

There is no laboring or servile class in this Happy No Land. The government of this World State is vested in a body of "Nature's Noblemen," whom, with his transliterative penchant, he styles "Samurai." There is a premium on Maternity. Mr. Wells admits that the question "of marriage is the most complicated and difficult in the whole range of Utopian problems." But the question of government is more insistent. There is no meat in this Utopia, which suggests melancholy degrees of cereal alimentation. But in the matter of drinks, there is a lovely latitude. "Under no circumstances," says Mr. Wells, robustly, "can I think of my Utopians maintaining their fine order of life on ginger-ale and lemonade. Those terrible temperance drinks fill a man with wind and self-righteousness." In this respect, his Utopians are Eu-to-per-ians.

"A Modern Utopia" has received lengthy and flattering criticism, or at all events, reading notices. The London *Athenæum* says "there has been no work of this importance published for the last thirty years."(?) The *Academy* thinks it "an advance on Mr. Wells's high level." *The Outlook* (London) thinks the main attraction of the book is its "unaccountable touch of reality," but as to real problems of Society, when Mr. Wells treats them we "feel that he is floundering in a quagmire of superficialities and impossibilities," and "immaturities of conception." The *Sun* and *Times* (New York) are laudatory, but *The Independent* scores the blend of romance and argument as "exceedingly unfortunate," and regards the

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paper read before the Oxford Philosophical Society in 1903, by Mr. Wells, which figures as an Appendix to "A Modern Utopia," as "more worthy of praise than the book itself." *The Tribune* congratulates the readers of Mr. Wells's imaginative works that he has unloaded all of the "perilous stuff" of his sociological investigations. *The Evening Post* says the old-line Socialist will find in Mr. Wells a veritable Balaam—Balaam having blessed when he was called upon to curse.

All of which seems to show that Mr. Wells, in writing under the inspiration of his "heretical, metaphysical scepticism," is not as universally acceptable as when he sets the mill of his scientific fancy at work. We happily have his own statement in the "Note to the Reader" which prefaces "A Modern Utopia" that this is, "in all probability," his last excursion into such fields of thought.

OUR NORTHWESTERN POSSESSION.

ALASKA AND THE KLONDIKE. By John Scudder McLain. Cloth, pp. xv, 330. Price, $2.00 net. McClure, Phillips & Co.

A CLEAR picture of Alaska—its history, population, occupations, resources, and problems. The book shows what life is in that region nearly as big as the United States east of the Mississippi, a large part of it lying in the Frigid Zone, and all of it for eight months each year cut off from the outside world save, at points, by telegraphic connection (recently established) and an uncertain, monthly, abridged mail; where all the year round the earth is frozen from a depth of two to one of ninety-five feet; where the buildings are wooden and without plaster, because the ground's change in height with the seasons destroys stone or brick structures, and loosens plastering; where in midwinter the sun is visible but four hours of the twenty-four, and in midsummer one who wishes to "see the town by night" finds himself guilty of an impracticable desire. The author quotes a Nome lady as saying: "From cordial friendship and real enjoyment of each other at the beginning of the 'shut-in' period, we come to tolerate and finally to feel a positive aversion for each other, till along in the spring . . . then we get over it and are friends again." All the women who can, spend the winter elsewhere—in Southern California, say, New York, or Florida.

JOHN S. MCLAIN.

Mr. McLain considers Alaska to be a very rich country, with a great future. Seward Peninsula, he thinks, is probably the richest gold-field of its size in the world. When reading the annual statistics of the Alaska gold output, he rightly reminds us, we should remember how few have produced it: with more mining, there will result more gold. The salmon fisheries employ more capital than the gold-mining, and produce yearly as much value (sometimes half as much more). Their average annual product alone exceeds the original cost of Alaska by a million dollars, and the total catch since Alaska became ours surpasses seven times what Mr. Seward paid for the whole district. Mr. McLain thinks that Alaska will eventually provide her own food, which, by reducing living expenses, will greatly help the mining. While the new Fairbanks diggings offer opportunities for "enterprising men—young, strong, and vigorous . . . with $1,000 to $5,000," he discourages any "stampede" at present by those having only their hands.

Alaska's greatest need and the key to her wealth is, in the writer's opinion, transportation—wagon roads and, eventually, railroads. He blames our Government for not having furthered the mining by building roads, as the British Klondike authorities have done. Next comes the need for amendments to the mining laws, preservation of the fisheries, better mail facilities, and a Congressional representative. Mr. McLain suggests that the country be spilt into two Territories, one comprising Southeast and the other Northwest Alaska, the central region remaining as it is till developments warrant a change.

As the New York *Times* notes, Mr. McLain had "an exceptional opportunity for gathering material" for this volume. He accompanied the subcommittee on the United States Senate committee on territories on its visit to Alaska in the summer of 1903. Every effort was made to show them the country, and men of all sorts and conditions flocked—often even from the outlying districts—to lay their knowledge before them. The matter of the book, with the exception of two chapters, originally appeared in Mr. McLain's paper, the Minneapolis *Journal*. These letters have been revised, and the facts and statistics now cover 1904. To the Brooklyn *Times's* adjectives "readable and compact," we add "graphic and informing." The illustrations, many of them full-page, are from photographs. There is a map showing the cable and telegraph lines, and the railroads built and proposed; also an index.

A FRESH STORY.

THE WALKING DELEGATE. By Leroy Scott. With frontispiece. Cloth, 372 pp. Price, $1.50. Doubleday, Page & Co.

MR. SCOTT'S name is not unknown in magazines. As preparation for writing one article, "Strike-Breaking as an Occupation," he became a scab "elevated" employee in New York. This, his first book, is a novel on the subject of that article—labor strikes. The story treats of the affairs of the New York branch of the "Structural Ironworkers' Union."

Not every novel opens, as this does, on the twenty-first story of the just-risen steel-frame of a New York hotel. The villain and the hero are respectively Buck Foley and Tom Keating, foreman of this job. Foley is the union's walking-delegate, and even Keating (who has had no cause to like him) acknowledges: "If Foley had had a fair start and had been honest, he'd have been the biggest thing that ever happened." The Chicago *Record-Herald* thinks the character is based on the devious Sam Parks. So militant a grafter, indeed, is he that the New York *Evening Post*, scenting "melodrama," hints two-edgedly that his outrages seem "too great even for a walking-delegate." Thrown on his own resources from early boyhood, formerly a Tammany heeler, originally not all bad, but finally given over to the one end of spoils; unlettered, but a born leader of men, sagacious, resourceful, quick; brutally plain-spoken at need; an artistic liar; a lurid hater; a fighter remorseless, diabolical, cool; and game even in defeat—he fairly wins a place among our mental portraits. Hardly less so Keating; bigger than his lot; tho ungrammatical, yet self-respecting, able, persevering; outcast from love; sacrificing bread to principle, and finally recognized by Foley himself as "the real article."

The character next in finish is Mr. Baxter, president of the Iron Employers' Association. Here we have the typical, able, aristocratic businessman, suave, diplomatic, fastidious, euphemistic, inscrutable, cold; grasping, of course. He is, besides, quick and deep—a rascal subtler than even Buck Foley. The most telling and satisfactory situation is where Keating (after quelling Foley and just before winning the strike) tells this artist in industry to his face: "I think you are an infernal hypocrite!—and a villain to boot!" Among the minor characters Mr. Driscoll, the "squarest" of the contractors, disappoints us by compelling our liking. The two backslidings of the grateful, slow-witted, ex-prize-fighter Swede, his Salvation-Army wife's big thrall, touch the subconscious. "Pig-iron" Pete furnishes some rather choice specimens of overalls wit. Of the women Mrs. Baxter, patroness of the working-class so long as it costs nothing, Mrs. Barry the hearty helpmate (contrast to Maggie Keating), and Mrs. Petersen, harboring a drop of unregenerate blood at the bottom of her heart, are clear transcripts from life. Possibly Tom's cheap, opinionated, and unyielding wife, with her heart in her clothes and furniture and department-store bargains, is, as *The Evening Post* thinks, a bit exaggerated. Girls like Ruth Arnold, the independent stenographer and heroine, are rarer. She develops into a noble woman. If neither she nor Tom wins happiness, they win life's first prize—character.

LEROY SCOTT.

Characters, incidents, conversations, setting are of the latest and seem impressively real. Only intimate acquaintance with laboring life could draw workmen so truthfully and give their slangy, picturesque, undraped, and nail-head talk. It is a strong story, notable even among good novels. Says the Chicago *Record-Herald:* "The book stands out in the fiction of thirty-five years—since the publication of Charles Reade's 'Put Yourself in His Place'—as the only labor story written in English with full knowledge, insight, and sympathy."

VOLUMES 1 and 2 of Mr. Charles Evans's "American Bibliography" have appeared. Volume 3 is promised for the fall of this year, and the remaining five or six volumes at yearly intervals. Mr. Evans, at one time librarian of the Chicago Historical Society, has been engaged for some twenty years upon the great undertaking of compiling a record of "all books, pamphlets, and periodical publications printed in the United States from the genesis of printing in 1639 down to and including the year 1820." The *Evening Post* remarks: "The work is in many ways unique. Its typographical appearance is striking, the body of the titles being printed in capitals and small capitals, with lower-case letters for imprints and notes only. But the most important feature of this bibliography is the chronological arrangement of the titles. By choosing a chronological rather than an alphabetical or systematic arrangement, Mr. Evans has performed a real service, directly to students of American literature and civilization, and indirectly by the example he has set for future compilers of national bibliographies."

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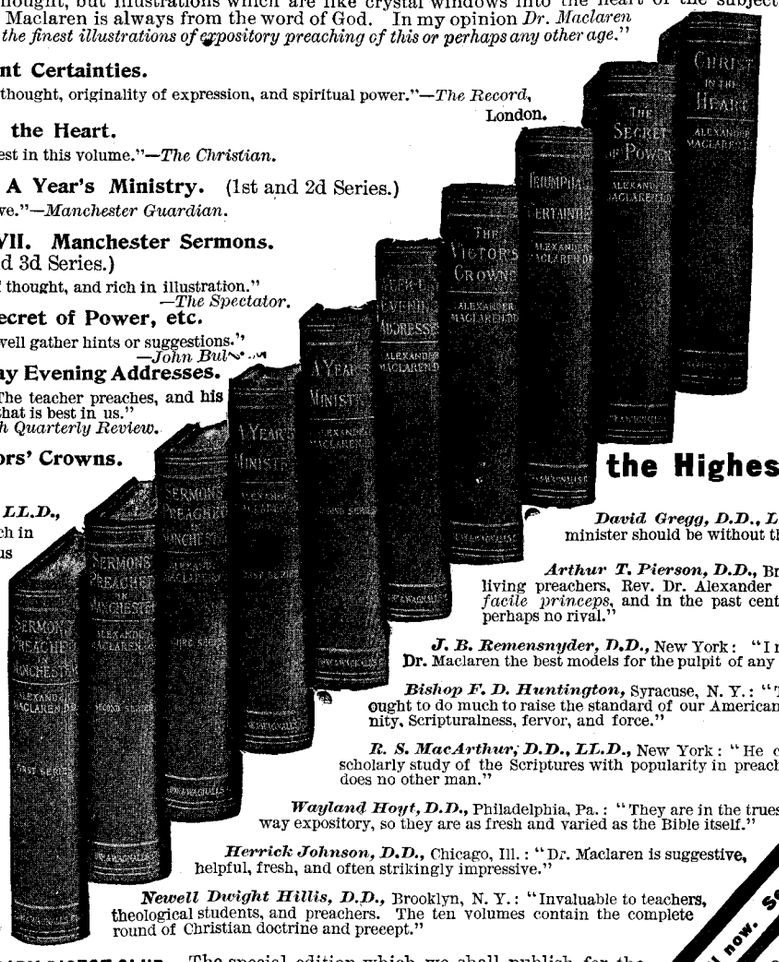

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CURRENT POETRY.

The Servants of the King.

BY ELSA BARKER.

[The following poem is one of ten awarded a money prize in the recently concluded literary contest conducted by *The Metropolitan Magazine*.]

One day I wandered out upon the road
That spans the mad world, near my calm abode,
Seeking companions in the restless throng
That staggered on beneath its varied load.

I bore no burden save a rimester's pack
That lay as light as wings upon my back;
My goal was life, my only task to sing
And speed the sun around the Zodiac.

I hailed a haggard fellow with a pile
Of printed stuff—the world's ephemeral file,
Calling, "Come, listen to a troubadour!"
He said, "I may have time—after a while."

There passed another in a gorgeous dress,
Laden with gems but pale with weariness.

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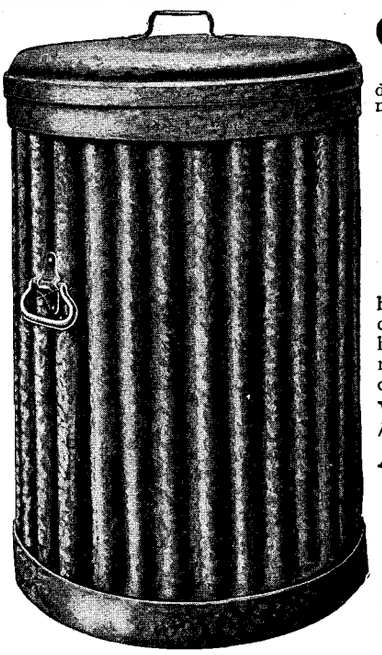

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"Pause, friend," I said, "and listen to the wind."
"Pause!" he replied, "and lose all I possess?"

Then came a man with bricks upon his head,
Pursuing blindly his elusive bread.
I called, "Come, listen to a song of life!"
"What is a song? And what is life?" he said.

I cried, "What seek ye all—what wondrous thing—
That ye have souls neither to laugh nor sing,
Nor hearts to love, nor time to think or dream?"
They said, "We do not know: we serve the king."

"Who is the king to whom your lives are sold?
Whence came his power?" I questioned young and old,
Seeking for knowledge; and I only heard:
"The king is nameless; but his power is gold."

I cried, "Your king is mad! Why, if he knew
The difference between the false and true,—
Between life's kernel and its worthless chaff,—
Would he not find some nobler use for you?"

They paused, they stared, they sighed; then one by one
Resumed the weary race they had begun.
And I? I walked beside them down the road—
But went on singing till the day was done!

The Peace of Portsmouth.

By Minna Irving.

Where on the shrines of old Japan
The shadows softly fall,
Where pious Russians kneel before
The icons on the wall,
Like incense rare upon the air
Ten million prayers arise,
To bless the land of liberty
And laud it to the skies.

The scourge of blood and flame has passed,
The storm of war is done;
Peace furls the pennon of the cross,
The banner of the sun.
The gods of trade will now rebuild
Port Arthur's battered crags,
While commerce mends with threads of gold
The tattered battle-flags.

—Two stanzas from a poem in *Leslie's Weekly*.

Summer's End.

By Zona Gale.

A sheaf of broom-flowers, yellow at the heart,
Drugged with the sun and listless with the dew,
The silence of the ordered petal edge
With flame shot through.

A sheaf of broom-flowers, amber with the light,
Green with the jade of leaf-work, shadows dull:
Pale silver silk sown with thin silver veins,
O—wonderful!

A sheaf of broom-flowers, lipped with line of brown,
Because the urge of death is in the hours;
O dawn in dust! O hand that can not close
Upon the flowers!

—*From Everybody's Magazine.*

The Kingdom of the Meek.

By Priscilla Leonard.

Kings choose their soldiers from the strong and sound
And hurl them forth to battle at command.
Across the centuries, o'er sea and land,
Age after age, the shouts of war resound;
Yet, at the end, the whole wide world around,
Each empty empire, once so proudly planned,
Melts through Time's fingers like the dropping sand.
But once a King—despised, forsaken, crowned
Only with thorns—chose in the face of loss
Earth's poor, her weak, her outcast, gave them love,
And sent them forth to conquer in his name
The world that crucified him, and proclaim
His empire. Lo! pride's vanished thrones above,
Behold the enduring banner of the Cross!

—*From The Outlook.*

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PERSONALS.

Root Told to "Move On."—Secretary of State Root was mistaken for a loiterer the other day by a special officer at the North Station at Boston and ordered to "move on." The incident occurred a few minutes after his arrival from Canada, says a despatch to the Philadelphia *Ledger*:

"Secretary Root was about to give one of his two sons, who accompanied him, instructions concerning the baggage, when a giant special officer swaggered up to the group.

"'Move on there, you fellows!' he shouted. 'You're blocking the way and better get along. Lively, now.'

"As he spoke the policeman grabbed Secretary Root and gave him a vigorous push. One of the Root boys looked amazed, but his father only smiled kindly and proceeded without protest to his carriage."

Our "Eyes and Ears" in Venezuela.—William James Calhoun, who has been sent to Venezuela by President Roosevelt to make an examination of the condition of affairs in Venezuela and to report the facts to him, so that the United States may be able to determine what course to adopt toward the South American diplomatic storm center, was a chum and political adviser of President McKinley. This is the second time that Mr. Calhoun has been chosen to act as the "eyes and ears" of this country. Mr. Calhoun, says a writer in the New York *Herald*, was born in Pittsburg fifty-seven years ago. He went to school in Poland, O., and it was in that State that he became acquainted with the McKinley family and grew to be a boyish chum of the late President. In the troubled months preceding the war with Spain, President McKinley turned for counsel and advice to the friend of his boyhood. At a time when public excitement was wildly inflamed by the terrible sufferings of the patriot population of Cuba under the Spanish yoke, and when the demand for war was gathering strength day by day, he sent Mr. Calhoun into Cuba to bring back the truth. To quote further from *The Herald's* article:

"There was an especially critical situation when the President made his request of Mr. Calhoun on April 30, 1897. Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, a naturalized American citizen, had been thrown into prison by the Spanish authorities on a charge of having participated in the revolution, and had died or been killed there before he was brought to trial. The treaty between Spain and the United States relating to the detention of prisoners had been violated, and there was a strong suspicion that Dr. Ruiz had been murdered in his cell by his jailers. His widow appeared for revenge, and there was an overwhelming demand for reparation.

"Public indignation was aroused to fever heat by accounts of his sufferings that were sent to this country, and tremendous pressure was brought upon President McKinley to act. Before coming to a decision he determined to send Mr. Calhoun to Havana. He asked him not only to examine into the merits of the Ruiz case, but also to collect all possible definite information concerning the progress of the revolution, so that the President might be in a position to reach a resolution that would be just and wise.

"Mr. Calhoun was on his way to Havana three days after the President had called upon him. Haste was necessary, for it was evident that the public could not be much longer restrained. He returned at the end of a month and placed the President in possession of the information that he desired. He told him that the insurgents would win their fight, not so much by force of arms as because Spain lacked the financial strength to continue the contest. He found the Spanish soldiers in a deplorable condition, unpaid and suffering from want and disease. He characterized General Weyler as a 'brute.' While there was great suffering among the reconcentrados, he said that it had been exaggerated by inflammatory reports. He told the President that there were less than 100 native Americans on the

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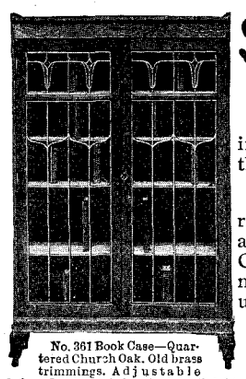

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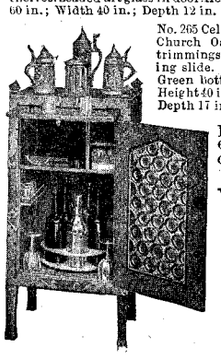

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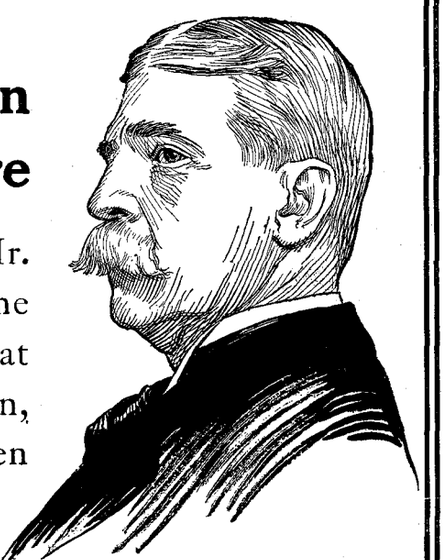

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island, but that there were a large number of naturalized citizens who were entitled to the protection of this Government. Both sides, he said, were guilty of atrocities and crimes against humanity.

"After he had submitted his report Mr. Calhoun, at the request of the President, remained several months in Washington advising him as the crisis approached.

"Mr. Calhoun served two years in the Interstate Commerce Commission, and upon his retirement in 1899 he went to Chicago, where he entered the law firm of Pam, Calhoun & Glennon. He became counsel for several important corporations, in some of which he was interested as a stockholder.

"President Roosevelt summoned him to Washington in 1902, and there was a report at that time that he had been asked to enter the Cabinet. If so he declined and returned to the practise of law. Now, after a lapse of eight years, he has been called upon to perform a service which in many respects bears a close resemblance to the service that he performed in Cuba."

CURRENT EVENTS.

PEACE.

September 9.—Both the Japanese and Russian peace envoys deny that the Czar and Mikado have entered into a secret treaty.

September 10.—The claims made by China against Russia and Japan for damages done by the armies in Manchuria may be submitted to The Hague Tribunal. Field Marshal Oyama sends an officer to General Linevitch, asking him to appoint a commissioner to meet one of his own to arrange for an armistice. News of peace is generally welcomed by the Russian army in Manchuria.

September 11.—Advices from Tokyo say that the city is quiet, tho the opposition papers continue their attacks upon the Government.

September 12.—Mr. Witte, the senior Russian peace envoy, leaves New York on his way to St. Petersburg. Before sailing he gives a practical pledge to work for the emancipation of the Jews in Russia.

September 13.—Rioting, in which thirty-seven policemen are injured, follows an anti-peace meeting at Yokohama. By the Russo-Japanese protocol naming an armistice, provision is made for a neutral zone; Russia agrees to send no more troops south of Harbin, and Japan will send none north of Mukden.

September 15.—Generals representing General Linevitch and Marshal Oyama sign an armistice providing for a neutral zone between the two armies.

RUSSIA.

September 9.—The situation at Baku is growing worse; firing continues, and starvation prevails.

September 10.—The Czar orders the discontinuance of the retaliatory tariff duties levied in Russia against American products.

September 11.—A general strike is ordered at Warsaw; Cossacks and infantry are patrolling the streets. Evidences that war materials are being imported into Finland give rise to the fear that a revolt is imminent.

September 12.—Tartars of the Caucasus declare a holy war; Mussulmans from over the Persian border are joining them for an effort to exterminate Armenian Christians. Villages are wiped out and revolting barbarities mark the warfare being waged by the Tartars.

September 13.—A proclamation is issued by the revolutionists, threatening with death those who continue the operation of the oil industry in the Caucasus.

September 14.—Additional troops are ordered to Baku, and Elizabethpol authorities ask for reinforcements. At Tiflis the revolutionists issue a call for a general uprising.

OTHER FOREIGN NEWS.

September 9.—Many new cases of cholera are reported in Prussia, but the Berlin authorities are confident that there is no danger of an epidemic.

September 10.—American Minister Gummere and European inhabitants abandon their residence in the suburbs of Tangier, because of the strug-

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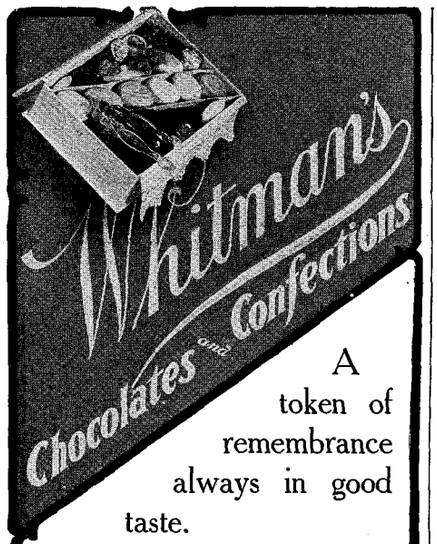

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gle between Raisuli and the rebellious tribesmen.

September 12.—The Japanese battle-ship *Mikasa* is sunk by the explosion of a magazine following a fire.

Relations between Rumania and Greece are reported severely strained.

Zambesi bridge, at Victoria Falls, East Africa, the highest bridge in the world, is opened in the presence of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

General Corbin, Admiral Train, Miss Roosevelt, and other members of the American party arrive at Peking.

September 13.—A plot to assassinate the rulers of Servia and Bulgaria is discovered at Belgrade and Sofia.

September 14.—The Hungarian Cabinet resigns.

September 15.—Karlstad reports a serious disagreement between the commissioners of Norway and Sweden. Troops are said to be moving to the Norwegian frontier.

Count de Brazza, the explorer, dies at Dakar, West Africa.

Domestic.

September 9.—Senator Elkins, of West Virginia, announces that he will call a meeting of a committee to frame a rate-regulation bill to present to the Senate this fall.

September 10.—Twenty new cases and seven deaths from yellow fever are reported from New Orleans.

President Roosevelt, in making public the report of the Keep Commission on the Printing-office scandal, scores the Mergenthaler company for making baseless charges of corruption against the office.

September 11.—It is said at Washington that Congress will be asked to reduce the duty on Russian sugar in return for the Czar's curtailment of the tariff on American goods.

No deaths from yellow fever occur at New Orleans for the first time since the disease became epidemic.

Twelve persons are killed and forty injured in a wreck on the New York elevated road.

President Morton, of the Equitable, declares that it is his purpose to conduct affairs in the interests of the policy-holders in a business-like manner.

September 12.—At a dinner given to W. J. Bryan by Chicago's Jefferson club he is suggested as a candidate for 1908. Mr. Bryan, in his address, opposes federal control of insurance companies and of trusts, and advocates the election of senators by popular vote.

September 14.—President Roosevelt approves the Markel contract for furnishing food to Panama Canal employees.

Indiana's State Auditor is removed on the ground that he has been guilty of a betrayal of trust in investing $145,000 of State funds in private affairs.

Patrick A. Collins, Mayor of Boston, dies at Virginia Hot Springs.

September 15.—Five cases of yellow fever are found among 200 refugees from Louisiana, who arrive at Cincinnati.

George W. Perkins, before the insurance investigating committee in New York, declares that the New York Life Insurance Company had subscribed $50,000 to the Republican campaign fund at each of the last three presidential elections.

CONTINUOUS INDEX.

Below will be found an index covering the issues of THE LITERARY DIGEST for the last three months. Each week the subjects for the week previous will be added, and the subjects for the issue fourteen weeks previous will be eliminated, so that the reader will always be able to turn readily to any topic considered in our columns during the preceding three months.

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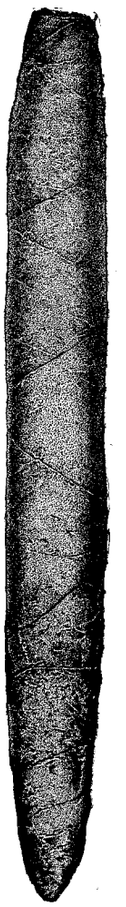
When you speak of a "ten-cent cigar" you mean a cigar that costs *you* ten cents.



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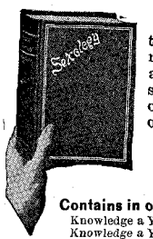

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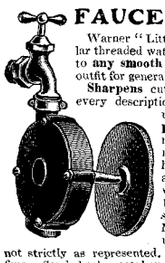

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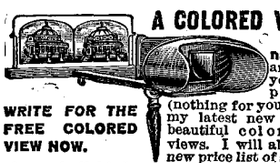

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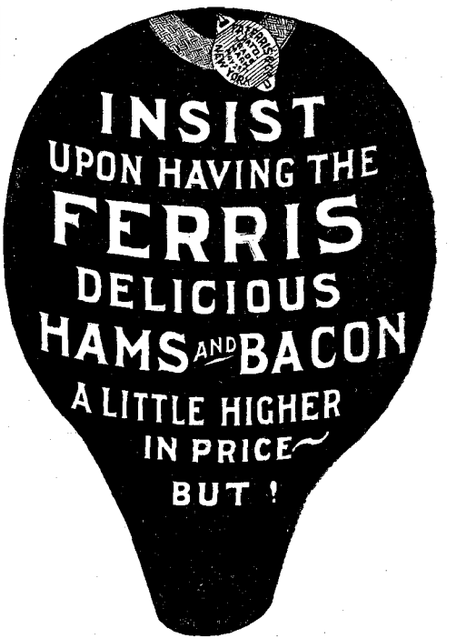

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THE LEXICOGRAPHER'S EASY CHAIR

In this column, to decide questions concerning the correct use of words, the Funk & Wagnalls Standard Dictionary is consulted as arbiter.

"H. C. S.," St. Louis, Mo.—"Kindly give the correct pronunciation of the word 'Elizabethan.'"

In America the pronunciation sanctioned by usage is e-liz'a-beth-an; in Great Britain, it is e-liz'a-bee'than.

"P. L. Y.," Kerrville, Tex.—"Kindly state who was the author of 'A Thousand and One Quarters of an Hour.'"

Thomas Simon Gueulette (born in Paris in 1683; died at Doyen de la Compagnie in 1768) was the author of "One Thousand and One Quarters of an Hour, or Tartarian Tales," which he published in 1723.

"H. R. McK.," Indianapolis, Ind.—"Your definition of 'emphysema' applies only to emphysema of tissue other than the lung. Delafield defines the essential lesion as being 'a development of new connective tissues with dilatation of the air-vesicles and atrophy of their walls.' This is essentially different from your definition."

Notwithstanding our correspondent's comment, "emphysema" is correctly defined in the Standard Dictionary. It is a secondary disease which can afflict any tissue, lungs included. Such being the case, treatment must be accorded to the primary disease, of which emphysema is a secondary result. Besides the foregoing disease, the lung can also suffer from a specific emphysema. The Standard Dictionary mentions this under "vesicular emphysema," which is defined as pulmonary emphysema, a disease of the lung.

"T. P.," Atlanta, Ga.—"What is the difference between an 'apothecary,' a 'pharmacist,' and a 'druggist'?"

An "apothecary" is one who keeps drugs for sale and puts up prescriptions. In certain European countries, as England, apothecaries are licensed practitioners of medicine, as well as skilled pharmacists. In the United States the two professions are rarely combined. A "druggist" is one whose business is the preparation, compounding, and dispensing of drugs. A "pharmacist" is one skilled in the art and science of compounding and preparing medicines; a qualified apothecary or druggist. From the foregoing "T. P." will see that these terms are interchangeable.

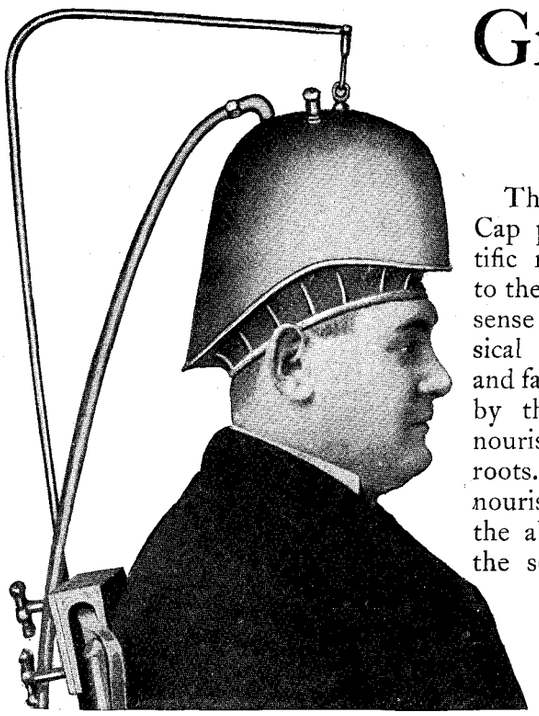
"B. S."—"(1) Is the subjunctive mode a dying mode? (2) Which is the preferable of the two following sentences, 'If I were they I would do it' or 'If I was they I would do it'? (3) Is the following sentence correct, 'I do not think it is I who did it'?"

(1) The Standard Dictionary says the English modes proper are the indicative, subjunctive, and the imperative. "Be" and "were" are almost the only surviving English subjunctive forms. The forms of the subjunctive mode are introduced by conjunctions of doubt, contingency, concession, etc., as "if," tho," or "whether." (2) "If I were they," etc., is the preferable sentence. (3) Conventionally, "I do not think it was I who did it" is correct; literally, it is not, for the evident intention is to say, "I think it was not I who did it."

"H. G. F.," Richmond, Va.—"(1) What is the meaning of 'paprica'? (2) What is the origin and meaning of 'Simon Pure'?"

(1) The correct spelling of the word is "paprika," and it is a mild variety of the common Capsicum, a favorite Hungarian condiment. (2) "Simon Pure," or, in full, "the real Simon Pure," is a colloquial equivalent for "the genuine article." This is an allusion to Simon Pure, a character in Mrs. Centlivre's comedy, "A Bold Stroke for a Wife." In this play "Simon Pure" is counterfeited by an impostor.

A Scientific Method of Growing Hair



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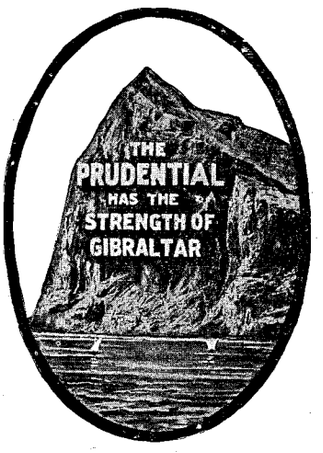

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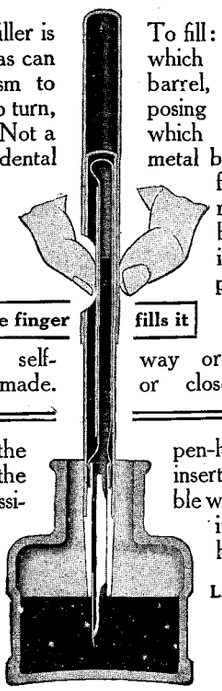

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